# AMERICAN MONTHLY MAGAZINE

# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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## ART. 1. ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

MESSRS. EDITORS,

THERE has lately crept into our language a very uncouth and inaccurate form of speech, which ought, before this time, to have been made the subject of some authoritative critical censure. Thus far, however, it has escaped, I believe, all public animadversion; and it is a matter of no little surprise, that some of the professed literati, both in Great Britain and this country, are contributing to its currency by their own example. Indeed, from an inherent propensity, in our language, to that particular combination of words, or mode of expression, in which the fault in question always originates, it is now becoming a characteristic blemish in many of the most respectable written compositions and public speeches of the day. There is certainly no extravagance in saying, that it dis-graces a great proportion of both.

The inaccuracy to which I refer, consists in improperly using a noun in the nominative or objective case, instead of the possessive, where the clause itself, in which the noun is used, or some other noun, stands, in sense, and ought to stand, in grammatical construction, as the nominative or objective. To illustrate my meaning, I subjoin a list of examples, selected at random, from a few hours' miscellaneous reading, and generally from a class of compositions in which one might reasonably expect to find, at least, " proper words in proper places." The examples are numbered, for the purpose of fachitating particular references to them.

1. "The possession of the goods was altered, by the owner taking them into his own custody." [Marshall on Insurance.

2. "In consequence of the king of Prussia invading Saxony and Bohemia, the Aulic council voted his conduct to be a breach of the public peace." [Edinb.

Fincylop.

3. "The secretary wearing a sword which and uniform, was a circumstance which added greatly to his natural awkward-ness." [Notices of Mr. Hume.

4. "Many valuable lives are lost, by reason of studious men indulging too much in sedentary habits." [Anon.

5. " I rise in consequence of the hon. gentleman having alluded to a remark of

mine." [Congr. Debates.

6. "The fact of an appointment having been made, would not prevent its being recalled." [Lord Castlereagh.
7. "How will this idea consist with the

Sabbath having been a ritual appointment

to Israel?" [Christ. Observ.

8. "Instead of Asia Minor having received them from Greece, a directly contrary process took place." [Quart. Rev.

9. "The gentleman having advanced a doctrine, which I regard as unconstitutional, is my apology for troubling the house," &c. [Congr. Debates.
10. "In New England, there is no

test to prevent churchmen holding offices."

Edinb. Rev.

11. "Observers-who reject all idea of their elevation being owing to volcanic, eruptions." [Quart. Rev.

12. "The accident of a horse neighing once decided the succession to the throne

of a mighty empire." [Anon.

Selections of the same kind, from recent publications, might be multiplied indefinitely; but there can be no need of augmenting the number. Of those which have now been presented, it must be perfectly obvious to every English scholar, that there is not one in which the grammatical construction corresponds with the real meaning of the writer or speakerin other words, not one in which the fact or idea intended to be communicated, is expressed by the language employed; and, of course, not one in which the rules of composition are not grossly violated. This may be made very apparent by a partial analysis of a few of the examples: To take the first—the meaning of the writer certainly is, not that the owner was the means by which the possession of his goods was altered, but that his taking them into his own custody was so. In grammatical construction, however, the language expresses the former meaning, and no other.

In the second example, the fact which the historian intended to state, is, in substance, that in consequence of the inva-sion of Saxony and Bohemia by the king of Prussia, the Aulic council voted, &c. But, according to the grammatical purport of the sentence, as it now stands, the words, "invading Saxony and Bohemia," express merely an incidental circumstance, which might have been thrown into a parenthesis, or a distinct clause; and the whole sentence might, without any material alteration of the sense, as expressed by the writer, be paraphrased thus: "In consequence of the king of Prussia-who, by the by, had invaded Saxony, &c. the Aulic council voted his conduct to be a breach of the public peace." If the paraphrase is nonsense, it is the nonsense of the original.

In the third, the meaning expressed by the words, is, that the secretary, (who happened, indeed, to wear a sword and uniform), was himself the circumstance which added to his own natural awkwardness. The fact intended to be communicated is, that his wearing a sword, &c.

was that circumstance.

To avoid unnecessary particularity, I will advert to only two or three more of the examples:—In the fifth, the declaration of the speaker, if construed according to the rules of syntax, is, that he rises, not in consequence of the allusion made to a remark of his own, by the "hon. gentleman; but in censequence

of the hon. gentleman himself, who had made the allusion. In the ninth, the gentleman referred to—not his having advanced an unconstitutional doctrine—is, according to the true construction of the sentence, the speaker's apology: And in the twelfth, the horse, instead of his neighing, is made the accident which decided the succession. An examination of all the other examples would present similar results.

Now, all this blundering and absurdity might have been avoided, and the intended sense of the several passages cited, have been made to correspond with their syntax, by merely using the possessive case of the nouns, put in italics, in the several examples: as, by writing owner's, instead of "owner"—Prussia's, instead of "Prussia"—secretary's, instead of "se-

cretary," &c.

If any one can doubt the justness of these strictures, he may bring them to a very simple and decisive test, by substituting pronouns for nouns, in each of the passages cited. Thus: "The possession of one's goods is altered, by him taking them into his own custody." "The Aulic council voted the king's conduct to be a breach of the public peace, in consequence of him invading Saxony," &c. "He wearing a sword and uniform was a circumstance which added to his natural awkwardness." " The lives of many studious men are lost, by reason of them indulging," &c. This, it will readily be agreed by every reader, is absolutely intolerable: and yet it does not at all surpass, in grossness of inaccuracy, any one of the original passages cited.

It is really a reproach to the literature of the age, that so much of it should be disgraced by this awkward hallucination. Barbarous as it is, however, it has not, thus far, I believe, become strictly vulgar; that is, it has not, as yet, interwoven itself as an idiom, with our common colloquial style. If so, it is not, perhaps, too inveterate for correction: and surely so rank a barbarism ought, if possible, and as speedily as possible, to be banished

from the English tongue.

J. G.

An Historical Essay on the Rise and Progress of Civil Liberty in Asia.

We can scarcely conceive a more important study than the examination of principles manifestly operating upon a numerous, high-minded, and intelligent people, to the production of national grandeur, power, and prosperity. We are

earnestly intent upon the comparative rude and imperfect developement of energies whose matured and refined action is The afto exhibit results so gratifying. fairs of a nation destined to commence a career at once honourable and glorious; vet struggling with the difficulties inseparable from a new and scarcely settled state; composed of parts not yet cemented into one great and efficient whole; whose eivil dissentions partially consume the strength and talent which a more enlightened policy will direct to enterprises of foreign grandeur, and the consolidation of a widely-spread and well-administered dominion; -must always open to the student in human character, sources of more minute and accurate knowledge of its constituents, than can possibly be afforded by the history of older and more polished nations, whose affairs are, too generally, conducted in a manner that systematically excludes the agency of superior abilities.

The abstract correctness of these observations, we may presume, will be generally acknowledged; but when predicated of an Asiatic people, such an exordium may sound rather strange in the ears of all who are versed in the history and policy of the East. They will recall to to their recollection those scenes of atrocious tyranny which, with the fewest imaginable exceptions, occupy the pages of oriental historians; that system in which the ruler is every thing, and the people nothing, will rise before them in all its variety of guilt; its unspeakable horror and gigantic enormity; held together only by that dreadful compact which it has instinctively entered into with the vices, passions, and ignorance of its miserable victims. That selfish and sanguinary temper which teaches the sovereign to endure no eminence but his own, or that springing from and dependent on himself: that morbid jealousy and distrust that will not bear even "a brother near the throne," and consequently interdicts the march of moral and political amelioration, and submits the interests of the community to the wayward and desolating caprices of a fool, perhaps, or a madman-always a tyrant,--will not, assuredly, be forgottenit will not be forgotten, that blood-stained basis on which nearly every Eastern dynasty has erected its seat of power, and terror, and oppression, from the height of which it has hung abroad the standard of its terrible and heart-bowing dominion: nor will the limited extent to which, it would seem on the first hasty glance, the nations of Asia are confined in their advances in science and practical morality, be underrated by those whose acquaintance with the Eastern character and genius would dispose them earnestly and sincerely to dispute the most plausible speculations on the capabilities and natural tendencies of the Orientals; then, too, the enervating climate, and the luxurious propensities of which it invites and sues the indulgence; and the habitual unmurmuring submission to despotic authority, which it appears to superinduce in the uncultivated minds and overawed hearts of the population; and the deep-rooted prejudices of an intolerant faith; and the want of concert among the people; and the absence of every feeling bearing the remotest connexion with patriotic sentiment; and the tranquil equanimity in the endurance of predestined hardships and distresses: these, we are well aware, will enter largely into the calculations of the readers of Eastern records, when they are told that at this moment there are three vast and independent states in the East, whose government is constructed upon principles singularly liberal, and the nature of whose internal polity encourages the progress of useful knowledge.

The communities to which we allude, are the WUHABEES, the SIKES, and the AFGHAUNS.

The doctrine of the Wuhabees, while it embraces a considerable portion of the Muhammedan ethics and rules of morality, and acknowledges the unity of God as the fundamental article of faith, dissents from Islamism, and, indeed, from every other religion, ancient and modern, in two or three particulars, which the clergy of all nations will, we are persuaded, regard with the most disinterested displeasure; and should these sectaries succeed in overthrowing the Turkish power in Asia, the establishment of a creed which denies the claims of prophets, and apostles, and inspired volumes, and looks not with the eyes of affection on mosques and richly-endowed benefices, and whose principles inculcate the smallest possible reverence for the pillars of the church, may invigorate and diversify the exhausted eloquence of the Moollas of Christendom.

Niebuhr is the first European traveller who reports the rise and progress of this interesting and enterprising sect. Arboul Wuhab was a native of El áred, (or Ool Urud,) a province of Arabia. In his youth he diligently applied himself to the study of his native literature, and after residing some years at Básra (Bussora) repaired to Bagdad, whence he returned

to Arabia. Here he began to propagate his opinions, and having attached several of the principal Shaiks to his interests,—among others, the governor of his native town,—the success of his first endeavours encouraged him to proceed, and his labours were quickly rewarded by the happiest results. His authority became speedily acknowledged throughout Elâred, and he established his capital at Derych, near Lahsa. His principal doctrines were,

1. That there is but one God.

2. That God never did, and never will, impart to man the gift of prophecy.

3. That there are no inspired books.

4. That it is a duty incumbent upon all true believers to join in the destruction of mosques, magnificent tombs, &c.

Muhammed, Jesus, Moses, and other prophets, they regard with high respect, as great and excellent men, whose actions are worthy of imitation; but the junction of whose names with that of God they reprobate. Sobriety and temperance are religious duties, and even the use of vegetable stimuli—coffee, opium, tobacco, &c. -is prohibited among them. Countrymen of Muhammed, and surrounded by his disciples, they evince an accommodating disposition towards the Muslims, highly advantageous to their cause. Thus, they consider it illegal to levy duties on the moveable property of Muhammedans, enjoin a strict observance of the moral precepts of the Koraun, &c.

Abdoul Wuhab was succeeded by his son Muhammed, according to Niebuhr, (Description de l'Arabie, tom. ii. p. 211 quarto ed. Paris,) but Major Waring (Tour to Sheeraz, p. 120) calls him Ubdool Uzeez, while a French historian (Salaberry, Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman, tom. iii. p. 334. Paris, 1813) making no mention of the establishment of the sovereign authority in the family of the founder, says that Ebn Sehoud, prince of a powerful Arabian tribe, having afforded refuge to Abdoul Wuhab during his difficulties, embraced the opinions of his guest, and made them the means of erecting an empire, which he transmitted to his descendants. These apparent contradictions may possibly be reconciled, by supposing Muhammed Ubdool Uzeez to have been the name of Abdoul Wuhab's son and successor, and Ebn Schoud the same with Bin-Saoud, the present sovereign and generalissimo of the Wuhabees, according to Major Waring. Be this as it may, the fact appears sufficiently clear that the Wuhabee empire (notwithstanding the partial defeats sustained by its chief in his late contests with the Pasha of Egypt) is firmly fixed in Arabia, and their general success against the Turks, and the ease and rapidity with which they propagate their tenets, make it more than probable that at no very distant period the whole of Ottoman Asia will be included within their boundaries. Their armies are numerous and better disciplined than any forces the Porte can send against them; Mecca and Medina (the holy cities) have fallen before them, and their expeditions into Syria are frequent and successful.

The Sikhs are a powerful people, the independent possessors of a large portion of Upper Hindústaun, several of the extensive and opulent provinces formerly subject to the Monguls, having been conquered partly, and partly allured into the Sikh alliance by the vast benefits held out to the Hindû inhabitants by those martial reformers. The countries of the Punjaub, or territories watered by the five branches of the Indus, part of Multaun, and nearly all the regions between the Jumna and the Sutlege (their north-western frontier leaning on the limits of Afghaunistaun, and their south-eastern boundary reposing, at present, on those parts of India held by the British,) have thrown off the yoke both of their Muslim and Brahminical tyrants, and embraced the liberal and stimulating tenets of this bold and adventurous people.

The founder of the Sikhs arose in the reign of the Afghaun Sooltaun, Belloli. NANOCK, or NANAC, was born in the village of Tulwundy, or Rai-pour, sixty miles west of the city of Lahore. A strict regard for the principles of justice, a commanding, a persuasive eloquence, and an unshrinking fortitude, fitted him for the station in which he was destined to shine. He visited most of the Indian States, and his disciples believe that he penetrated into Persia and Arabia. His travels occupied fifteen years, and from the circumstance of his having converted, during his absence, a Muslim who accompanied him, we may infer that he drew up his civil and religious code, while employed in studying the manners and condition of foreign nations. The death of the venerable apostle (whom his disciples secretly believe to have been an incarnation of the Deity) took place in 1539, at Dayrah, on the banks of the Ravee, where the anniversary of their founder's decease is still celebrated by the Sikhs with many sacred ceremonies.

The revolution effected by Nanock was, indeed, in a philosophical and poli-

tical point of view, the greatest that India ever witnessed; though its immediate results were by no means invested with that external splendour so captivating to the imagination. He abolished the worship of images, and ordained that the temples should be of the most simple construction, and utterly devoid of ornament. In each of these "houses" of worship, is deposited a copy of the "Grunth," or civil and sacred ordinances of Nanock. The people are directed to address their prayers and supplications immediately to God, and not through the medium of an intercessor. They are educated in the belief of one unassociated Governor of the universe. The admission of proselytes, forbidden among other Hindûs, aimed a mortal blow at the old superstition, and opening to all the inferior castes the paths of respectability and opulence, shook to its basis the ancient and iron fabric of Brahminical fraud and despotism.

The reformation, once began, continued-rapidly, yet peacefully-to extend itself, and grew up under the eyes of the Brahmins and the Monguls for two hundred years, without molestation. the Muslims, engaged in foreign and civil wars, and caring little for, and rarely interfering with the religious opinions and ceremonies of their Hindû subjects, should not observe and persecute the dissenters, will not surprise us; but it is surely extraordinary that a class of individuals, depending for all their consequences and privileges upon the existing system, should not have used their influence to crush in the beginning the innovator and the innovation-and strangle in its birth a revolution which, though incalculably beneficial to the people, would irrecoverably divest them of the sanctity, and power, and immunities they had hitherto enjoyed—and obliterating the magic circle of their prerogative, drag them forth into the light, and exhibit them in all the paraphernalia of their imposture to the disenchanted vision of the multitude .-(Foster's Journey from Bengal to England, vol. i. p. 291, et seq.)

In the beginning of the seventeenth century, the progress of the Sikhs attracted the observation of the Mongul government. It became jealous of the increasing numbers and prosperity of the dissenters—and when did jealousy in power refrain from persecution? Har Govind was the sixth ruler of this once peaceful people—his father had perished in a Muslim prison, and the new chief resolved on revenge. He attacked and put to death the agent of his father's mis-

fortunes; and was, for a period, successful against the forces sent against him by the emperor Jehan-jire.—at length he was overpowered. (Foster's Journey, vol. i. p. 298.)

The history of the Sikhs continues unimportant till the accession of Aurungzebe. In the reign of that monarch they became more widely alienated from the system of Brahma than was strictly authorized by the precepts of Nanock. Hitherto they had had recourse to arms so far only as was commanded by the law of self-defence and preservation; but the arbitrary treatment they suffered under Aurungzebe, roused a new spirit, which the assassination of their leader, Taigh Bhahauder, by his command, quickened and exasperated. Guru Govind (i. e. the priest Govind), the son of the murdered chief, remembered how his father fell, and determined on retribution. The Sikh records inform us, that at this period he had accomplished only his fifteenth year. But he was active and resolute, accustomed to the use of arms, and his martial genius speedily converted the pacific disciples of Nanock into a nation of warriors.

This was the object of his whole scheme of policy-and the sole addition to the system of Nanock that was required to sweep away the last dyke between the old frame of Hindû society, and the over whelming waves of enthusiastic innova-Prompted at once by the spirit of revenge and ambition, Guru Govind (who henceforward assumed himself, and made his followers assume, the name of Singh, or Lion) addressed himself to the inflamed and exacerbated minds of his countrymen; -vividly he displayed before them the baseness of their fortunes under the Monguls, and passed in galling review the disgraceful tenure by which alone they held their lands, their lives, their property. He showed them by how slender provisions the institutions of their revered founder were guarded from destruction,every thing valuable in their estimation. and dear to their hearts, was at the mercy of a proud, cruel, and insolent tyrant, whose late atrocious outrage upon them in the person of their chief, too plainly demonstrated the rancourous disposition he fostered against the reformers—the determination he had formed to crush a power that already alarmed his fears-and the measures to which he would resort to effect his abominable purpose. He described the arts that would be employed to deceive and allure-and the rigeurs that would be practised to awe and comto Arabia. Here he began to propagate his opinions, and having attached several of the principal Shaiks to his interests,—among others, the governor of his native town,—the success of his first endeavours encouraged him to proceed, and his labours were quickly rewarded by the happiest results. His authority became speedily acknowledged throughout Elâred, and he established his capital at Derych, near Lahsa. His principal doctrines were,

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pel;-disunion among the people-and hostility between themselves and their leaders-and cabal among the chiefsand bribery in its hundred shapes: And he unsheathed before their fancy the sword of persecution-and called up in their minds the terrors of desolationand he asked them how they would feel when they beheld their sons and kindred weltering in their blood, their daughters writhing in the embraces of lust and rapine, and their temples, and dwellings, and pleasant places blazing in Muhammedan fires? For the aversion of these dreadful evils, he said, but one mean presented itself-to force, force must be opposed, and the Sikhs must rely for the preservation of their rights and their laws on the strength of their arms, and the sharpness of their swords. He would be their leader; -his injuries -his hatred toward the strangers—gave him an undeniable claim to that station of glory and peril. Hereditary chief of the nation, he trusted for support to their free, uninfluenced approbation. The design he had formed to raise his countrymen to greatness, required that every man should become a soldier! The first duty of a citizen was the defence of his country. "That sacred service now demands us all-to all be the ranks of war thrown open—let the prizes of honour and wealth be accessible to each;—Brahmins and Cshatryas, Vaisyas and Sudras, be ye all equals, brothers, warriors! Ye have been lambs in peace-be ye lions in battle. Govind will be your general, and the spirit of Nanock shall inspire your councils."

Govind addressed an auditory prepared to receive his exhortations with an enthusiasm answerable to his own. They drank the spirit of his wordsthey started to arms, and thronged around the standard of the illustrious youth who thus forcibly displayed to them the evils, the disgraces of their present situation, and so clearly pointed out the long train of disasters that would infallibly trace its march among them, if they longer endured in slavish apathy the heavy and humiliating yoke of their foreign tyrants. Into their hearts his words descended, and the latent fires of independence and glory, for which the principles of Nanock had provided the means of accumulating access, burst at once into At the period when Guru Govind roused them to arms, the Sikhs were a people amazingly different from any other nation of Hindû origin or connexion .-The doctrines of Nanock were not merely captivating in their first display, but preg-

nant with such great and evident benefits to almost every class of Hindûs but one, that their rapid diffusion could have been imperiled only by a character the reverse of that which belonged to their venerable founder. Courage and eloquence are, indeed, qualities of an exalted order, and he who without them should set about the task of national reformation, would quickly learn on the scaffold his total unfitness for the part he had undertaken to enact: but the apostle of the Sikhs was not only distinguished by the undauntedness of his temperament, and the energies of a commanding elocution,—he was celebrated, likewise, for the uniform sobriety of his deportment, and that inestimable prudence which taught him how to secure the greatest good with the slightest danger, and avoid risking the total failure of his noble plan by too hasty a developement of all its parts. Had he, in the onset, aimed at that complete enfranchisement of his countrymen, which was reserved as the illustrious distinction of a succeeding age, the chances of his success would have been incomparably diminished; both classes of tyrants, the Monguls and Brahmins, would have taken the alarm-the impetuous reformer and his rash disciples must have fallen beneath the first effects of their awakened dread, and the vigilance of the persecutors would have taken effectual precautions against the repetition of such an enterprize.

Nanock pursued a surer, safer path. The advantages he put the inferior castes in possession of, rendered their present condition too delightful when compared with their preceding state, to leave them either leisure or inclination forcibly to enlarge the circuit of their newly-acquired privileges. Doubtless he was aware that the career of improvement, once begun, is rarely abandoned—that to effect the entire liberation of his countrymen would require more bold and daring measures than were then expedient; but the wise and patient spirit of Nanock perceived, that when the period of a farther mutation should arrive, his institutions would be so extensively propagated, and so firmly established, that the struggle for complete and acknowledged independence would be ushered in with less ambiguous omens, and the triumphant issue of that stern conflict with the oppressors insured by the numbers and experience of the sectaries. The calculations upon which we may suppose the legislator of the Sikhs to have grounded his proceedings, were justified by the result. Between Nanock (whom the gra-

titude of his countrymen subsequently complimented with the title of Shah, or King) two hundred years had elapsed, and in that long interval the institutes of the venerable patriarch had acquired the form of a compact and well-understood system. Supported, perhaps improved, by a series of disinterested rulers, so greatly had it elevated the Sikhs above the common standard of Hindû society to the mass of the population its benefits had become so conspicuous and magnificent, that when Govind called them to arms, the people instantaneously acceded, and seemed, by the enthusiasm with which they embraced his suggestions, to have long brooded over a project which, by one decisive assault, would cast down and destroy the few remaining barriers between the humblest members of the community, and the higher stations of influence and wealth. The nation assumed a military aspect and attitude, and though the superior talents of their youthful chief maintained him in the command of their armies, the determined and heroic spirit of Govind animated every individual; and the peasant forsook his plough—and the manufacturer deserted his loom-and the artizan left his art; and they waited not for arms, but rushed into the field with such weapons as their domestic occupations furnished them with. But, at this period, the Mongul power had attained its loftiest pitch; the sway of Aurungzeb stretched over the whole of northern, and vast tracts of southern India. His armies were numerous—his treasury was full, and their first attempts, though made with all the ardour of a people, conscious of the justice of their cause, and corroborated by the extraordinary abilities of their chief, were unsuccessful. The vigilant severity of Aurungzeb rendered it impossible for them to reassert their rights during the remainder of his reign. But, on the death of that great and guilty sovereign, the scales of fortune began to wa-The empire, no longer held together by the strong hand of the deceased monarch, exhibited evident tokens of decline. Again were the Sikhs beheld in arms—the resources of the Monguls were again employed against the undaunted enthusiasts-and once more success attended the Muslim standards. The vindictive victors now gave loose to the reins of persecution, and the savage fury with which they were pursued, compelled the Sikhs to take refuge in the mountains and forests of the Punjaub, there to wait till called forth by some more favourable juncture. The irruption of Na-

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dir, and the extreme feebleness to which that tremendous visitation reduced the Monguls, gave free scope to the ambition and resentment of the long abused but intrepid sectaries. Rushing from their temporary retreats, they spread themselves over the desolated provinces; and the Monguls fell away from before themand the star of their fortune shone in the ascendant—and they proceeded from conquest to conquest, till the flag of their dominion waved over two-thirds of the Indian empire of the Monguls.

The establishment of the Afghaun sway, on the death of Nadir, brought the Sikhs in contact with the Dooraunee power. Ahmed Shauh was a prince of genius and vigour; and in the shock of the rival states it was the destiny of the Sikhs to succumb for a time beneath their formidable adversary. But the nation appears to have remained entire and untributary; to have retained its laws and liberties. The institutions of Nanock and Govind seem to have been fortified by additional provisions, and the civil contentions of the Afghauns render it not improbable that under the influence of the Sikhs the revolution begun by Nanock and advanced by Govind,\* may direct its victorious march eastward, and northward, and southward through the regions of Hindûstaun, and extend the shadow of its wings over the

enlightened and aspiring millions of that

long and variously oppressed country.

<sup>\*</sup> The principle of equality is the corner-stone of the Sikh constitution, as it stands at present. The change produced by Nanock limited itself to the abolition of caste. Govind was the author of the political and military revolution. He is recorded to have said "that the four tribes of Hindus, the Brahmin, Cshatrya, Vaisya, and Sudra, would, like pan (betel-leaf), chunam (lime), supari (bitter nut), and khat (terra-japonica), become all of one colour when well chewed. All who subscribed to his tenets were upon a level; and the Brahmin who entered his sect had no higher claims to eminence than the lowest sudra who swept his house." (Sir John Malcolm's Sketch of the Sikhs.)

colm's Sketch of the Sikhs.) "In travelling through the Siringnaghur country, our party was joined by a Sicque horseman, and being desirous of procuring his acquaintance, I studiously offered him the various attentions which men observe to those they court. But the Sicque received my advances with a fixed disdain, giving me, however, no individual cause of offence, for his deportment to the other passengers was not less contemptuous. His answer, when I asked him the name of his chief, was wholly conformable to the observations I had made of his nation. He told me (in a tone of voice, and with an expression of countenance which seemed to revolt at the idea of servitude) that he disdained an earthly superior, and ac-knowledged no other master than his prophet." (Foster's Journey, vol. i. p. 329).

The Afghauns\* constitute the third Asiatic people, among whom we discern considerable proofs of a meliorated state of society, and a practical consciousness of the value of liberty, at least equal to that of many European nations.

Afghaunistaun contains, within a loosely calculated circuit of two thousand miles, more or less, a population of fourteen millions.

The name and importance of the Afghauns are conspicuous in the early periods of the modern history of Hindûstaun. The territories inhabited by that brave and rising people extend in the form of an imperfect circle, the western section of which is composed of some of

\* Mr. Elphinstone's "Account of Caubul" has furnished the materials for the observations in the text During the government of lord Minto, in British India, and by his direction, Mr. Elphinstone was charged with a mission to the court of Caubul. Political motives, arising from the possible invasion of India by Napoleon, and the known endeavours of the Imperial Government to effect a good understanding with the states of Western Asia, appear to have been the causes of the embassy, the preparations for which were made at Delhi with a magnificence extraordinary even in the East. Audience was given at Peshawer (the second city of Caubul.)

Mr. Ephinstone's work is divided into two parts—The first and shortest, embraces the journey to and from Peshawer, beyond which city the convulsed state of the country prevented him from proceeding; -the second contains a regular, minute, and admirably-digested account of the geography, productions, animals, &c. of Caubul; the inhabitants, their dispositions, attainments, manners, &c.; the tribes composing the population; the dependent provinces; and, lastly, the government. Five appendices are added; the hirst—a history of the Dooraunee monarchy; from the Ahmed Shauh to Shauh Shuja, the sovereign in possession when the English ambassador arrived at Peshawer; -the second-a narrative of a journey into Caubul by one Mr. Durie, (a native of Bengal,) written at Mr. Elphinstone's request;-the third-an account of countries bordering on the Afghaun dominions;the fourth-an extract from lieut. Macartney's geographical memoir on Caubul;-the fifth-a vocabulary of the Pushtoo language, the general idiem of Afghaunistaun, and apparently distinct from any other spoken in India. Such are the contents of Mr. Elphinstone's valuable and interesting work; but, to form an adequate idea of its great merits, the mass of information of almost every description which it includes, the correctness and clearness of its arrangement, the sound and discriminating judgment so conspicuous throughout the volume; the masterly manner, in brief, in which the author has managed a subject at once so extensive and complex, and the exemplary modesty which renders him so anxious that his attainments shall not be overrated-to become acquainted with these combined claims to the reader's applause, is not possible without a careful perusal of the work

the eastern provinces of Persia, the oriental including the conquered parts of Hindustaun, and the northern stretching over the snowy peaks of Hindû Kosh (or Caucasus) into the regions of Tartary. A line carried from the southern to the northern limits, and again to the western confines from the eastern boundaries, may be conceived as the general diameter of a circumference of two thousand miles. The ranges of Hindû Kosh proceed in irregular lines from the north through nearly the whole of this tract. The country is divided between mountain and valley, though many plains of considerable extent (those of Caubul and Peshawer are preeminently fertile and beautiful) intervene between the arms of Caucasus, and afford space and pasture to the wandering tribes. The Sind and its branches are the principal streams, but innumerable rivulets, formed by the melting of the snows in the superior cavities of Hindû Kosh, amply suffice for the purposes of irrigation in those parts of the country that are deficient in great rivers. CAUBUL, PESH-AWER, Ghaznah, Candahar, and Heraut, are the chief cities; and if the population of Peshawer be taken as the criterion of that of the other towns above mentioned. we shall find that about 1-28th of the whole people of Afghaunistaun is resident in cities immemorially celebrated as seats of Asiatic politeness and science. The climate is healthy, and unsubject to the depressing and overpowering heats of the Indian heavens; but the monsoons rage with awful violence, and during the periods of their stay, the sheety rains and the raving winds transcend the wildest storms of Europe. The productions of both hemispheres abound and flourish in the generally rich soil and temperate atmosphere of Caubul.

Afghaunistaun has seen the rise in her bosom of the most powerful Muslim states. To Hindûstaun she has sent forth her colonies of conquerors and kings, and but for the superior fortune of the descendants of Timour, the present shadow of an emperor might have been an Afghaun. On the west they have pushed their victorious arms into Iraun, and the expulsion of the Sefies was the work of an Afghaun mountaineer, in whose name the Khootba resounded in the musjids of Isfahaun-and whose dynasty gave way only to that mighty chief, who, from the humblest obscurity, burst forth into greatness and renown-and bound the diadem of Persia round the brows of a hero, and sent out afar the tidings of his exploits, and called up the reverence of the East for the name.

of NADIR. Previously, however, to the appearance and reign of Ahmed, the Afghauns, though thus powerfully interfering in the concerns of circumjacent states, and held to be formidable neighbours by the potent sovereigns of Persia, Hindûstaun, and Tartary, had not permanently established their dominion over the regions now comprehended within the boundaries of Caubul. The form of society among them favourable to the achievment of foreign conquest, was wholly hostile to the establishment at home of a great and well-settled empire. The division of the nation into tribes, between whom the bonds of friendship and alliance were seldom strong, or for any considerable time lasting, confined the attention of the clans and their chiefs to their own peculiar interests; civil dissentions would, of course, frequently occur between communities, whose views and enterprises must so often clash—and the weaker party, yielding to the stronger, vented its resentment on, and procured a settlement in, the territories of it less martial neighbours. The authority of their chiefs might depend, in some measure, on their personal character; but their legitimate power was confined within very narrow limits. As the administrators of justice, they were the constitutional depositories of the law, and the legal dispensers of rewards and punishments. In disputes between members of the same community, it was permitted, nay, it was almost imperative upon them, to interpose their respectable influence to assuage the animosity of the contending parties, and by amicable compromise, prevent the fierceness of the quarrel from degenerating into a bitter and incurable feud. But when any plan or enterprize was in agitation touching the interests of the tribe at large, and to execute which the efforts and resources of the community would be required, the chief was under the wholesome and indispensible necessity of convening the members of the clan, and taking the sense of a general council on the expediency of the measure in deliberation.

Such was the domestic polity of the Afghauns till the death of Nadir Shah. The assassination of that extraordinary potentate gave birth to an order of things considerably different. The civil wars that convulsed Persia on the demise of her late sovereign, would not permit the candidates for the throne to attend to the security of the distant dependencies of the empire. The khaun of the Dooraunees, the chief of the Afghaun tribes, was young, brave, and ambitious. He aspired

to free his compatriots from the yoke of foreigners, and the reward he proposed to himself was the sovereignty of his country. Those glorious scenes on which the eyes of ambition delight to dwell, floated before the vision of the daring and undazzled aspirant. His vigorous and undaunted mind contemplated the perils of the enterprise—and despised them. His sagacity indicated the measures proper to accomplish his object—and he embraced them. The hatred of the Afghauns against the Persians was, at once, political and religious; -as their oppressors, they detested them—they abhorred them as schismatics. This disposition the khaun rendered the lever of his designs. By his deeds of arms he attracted the observation, the applause, of his countrymen; his victories gained at the head of his tribe, over the late conquerors and lords of Afghaunistaun, excited their grateful enthusiasm; the spirit of an avenger seemed enshrined in the frame of Ahmed, and it required but slight persuasion to induce the people and their leaders to choose a hero for their king.

The deliverer of his country was the first monarch of Caubul; but those who from the establishment of a regal government, should infer, that from the heights of independence the Afghauns dropped at once to the depths of slavery;—that having for centuries enjoyed the liberty, somewhat licentious; -and the manners, somewhat rude-of a turbulent but highsouled people-they were suddenly metamorphosed by the spells and incantations and mighty magic of royalty, into the servile vassals of an overbearing despotism, would be, indeed, wonderfully deceived. The spirit of independence which their domestic manners and laws, and, above all, their martial habits, so powerfully fostered, was at least equal to their grateful admiration of the merits of Ahmed. Raised to the throne by w nation to whom the name of king was a strange name, that politic sovereign was too wise to imitate the system of tyranny and spoliation so generally in vogue with oriental princes. A revenue sufficient for the expenses of the state, and its punctual payment—the appointment of magistrates—the establishment of a national army-the selection of ministers—the choice of viceroys and provincial governors—such appear to have been the principal features of the monarchy as established by Ahmed. But these provisions for the moderate power and dignity of the prince were not suffered to encroach on the rights, well understood and strictly guarded, of the people-

The clans still continue to enjoy their distinct local governments and jurisprudence. The khauns are occasionally, it may be, appointed by the king-but this, when it occurs, is an affair that requires considerable delicacy; and he whom the voice of the clan pronounces to be best adapted to the office, is the person on whom it will be most prudent in the sovereign to confer it. All affairs of general importance or interest are still discussed in open Jeerga, or council, and decided by a majority. No acts of summary punishment or capricious cruelty, either by the monarch or heads of tribes, can be committed with safety. The khauns, indeed, are regarded rather as magistrates than political rulers. Literature is cultivated and encouraged; some even of the abstruser branches of science are beginning to be inquired into, and known, and the condition of the softer sex is much superior to what is observed in other parts of Asia. The recent and existing distractions of the state do not appear to have stopped, though they may have retarded the career of improvement. Works of public utility and convenience are actively proceeding Like the Sikhs, the Afghauns are rapidly ascending the steps of civilization. The present tumults will, it is probable, terminate in the election to the throne of some new Ahmed, who will collect and consolidate the fluctuating energies of Afghaunistaun, and, with a resolved heart and a vigorous arm, give them a direction auspicious to the prosperity and grandeur of his people, and send down to posterity a name embalmed in the tears and admiration of his country.

G. F. B.

#### Biographical Sketch of the late Geographer, John H. Eddy, of New-York

The subject of the following memoir, died, at the house of his father, on the morning of the 22d of December, last, in the thirty-fifth year of his age. The few particulars of his life, which are here given, though drawn up by the hand of friendship, are stated with all the impartiality of truth, and it is hoped may serve to furnish to the reader some idea of the unwearied industry and extensive attainments of the deceased, though labouring under one of the most severe calamities incident to humanity. Those who were happy in a personal knowledge of the subject of this hasty sketch can best bear testimony to his integrity as a man, and to his warmth and constancy as a friend; while the manner in which he performed

his several duties, must have left an indelible impression on the hearts of those who were the peculiar objects of them.

JOHN H. EDDY was the eldest son of Thomas Eddy, Esq. of New-York, and was born in this city, in 1784. At an early age he entered upon the study of the ordinary elements of education, and equally by the ardour of his application and by his progress in knowledge, while labouring under all the disadvantages of a total deprivation of hearing, engaged the most affectionate sympathy of his friends. It was between the twelfth and thirteenth years of his age, that he had the great misfortune to lose entirely the sense of hearing, by a dangerous and protracted attack of the scarlet fever. Notwithstanding the great personal disadvantage under which he thus laboured, the powers of his mind were not suffered to lie dormant, and he improved with great carnestness every opportunity of cultivating them. To an ample knowledge of the Latin and French languages, he added that of algebra and the mathematics, all which he acquired without assistance from ter hers. The intervals of time not devoted substantial pursuits, were occupireading, and few persons of his age have excelled him in the knowledge of ancient and modern history. It was his practice during the winter to rise an hour or two before day-light, and apply himself in the morning to general reading, and during the course of the day he seemed to be every moment employed in the pursuit of some favourite study.

That such ardent and constant intellectual exertions were not calculated to do good to his constitution, will not excite surprise; and the anxiety of his relatives became awakened at the symptoms of disease which he himself little regarded. In order to restore him to his former health, he was persuaded to abandon for a time his closet studies. It has often been observed, that a change of mental occupation is itself sufficient for the purposes of physical renovation. He now resolved to indulge that fondness for the works of nature, to which, at an early age, he had formed an attachment, but which he had, from various circumstances, been prevented from gratifying. his attainments in this pleasing department of rational investigation, entitled him to high praise, cannot be denied; and the success that attended his labours in botany and mineralogy, is known to the cultivators of these branches of science.

But, while thus engaged, Mr. Eddy did not neglect those ornamental studies

which enable the possessor to take a part in elegant and polite conversation, but of which, from his peculiar situation, he was painfully deprived. His taste was improved by the perusal of the best poetical and prose authors of the present and for-What he himself wrote he mer times. communicated in a style characterized by its perspicuity and torce: and in his occasional interviews with the muses, he evidenced some of the stronger marks of genuine poetry. In a small volume of manuscript poems which he has left, there is one written on the occasion of his loss of hearing, in which he deplores, in plaintive accents, what so seriously affected his sensibility; and in no other instance has he ever been known on that account

to utter a complaint.

Geography, however, was the favourite pursuit to which Mr. Eddy was attached: it is by his acquisitions on this important subject that he is to be especially regarded. How large were his pecuniary expenditures, what sacrifices of time and of health he made in order to acquire correct geographical knowledge, how honourably he supported his pre-eminence, and how extensively was his usefulness in this study directed for the benefit of his country, are circumstances familiarly known and universally admitted. maintained an extensive correspondence with many of the most eminent characters in England and France, as well as in different parts of the United States, on geographical topics. The several maps which he published exhibit a display of taste and science exceeding any thing of the kind that had been presented to the American public. Among the first of these was his circular map of thirty miles round New-York, which appeared in 1814. He also published, at the request of the Canal Commissioners, a map of the western part of the state of New-York, with the proposed tract of the intended canal from lake Erie to the Hudson, accompanied with an accurate profile of the levels, and with a scale showing the number of feet of each level above Hudson river and below lake Erie. Next followed, at the request of his excellency governor Clinton, the President of the Board of Canal Commissioners, a map illustrative of a communication between the Great Lakes and the Atlantic ocean, by means of lake Eric and Hudson river. On this map are laid down the North-Western Territory, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Kentucky, the western part of Virginia, Pennsylvania, and the western part of the state of New-York; with a table, showing the respective distances from principal places to New-Orleans, New-York, Montreal. &c. About the same time he gave to the public a map of the Niagara river, with a profile view of the country from lake Erie to lake Ontario. The materials of these different maps were derived from the best sources, and the accuracy of his illustrations could not be questioned. Mr. Eddy had, more than two years before, viz. in 1812, accompanied his father and other commissioners for the purpose of exploring the western part of the state, and of ascertaining the practicability of a canal communication between lake Erie and the Hudson.

A short time previous to his death, Mr. Eddy finished a map of the state of New-York. This may be pronounced his best executed work: as to style, accuracy, and scientific arrangement, it may be safely said to exceed all other maps hitherto published in America. It cost him nearly four years of unremitted labour: his materials were original; he collected them with uncommon care, and incurred great expense in obtaining distinct surveys of every county in the state.\*

He had also engaged in other important labours of a like nature. Governor Dickenson, of New-Jersey, and a number of gentlemen of that state, made application to Mr. Eddy to undertake a map of New-Jersey, and, with that view, furnished him with considerable surveys. The legislature, anxious that this work should be executed by one so competent, passed a resolution, unsolicited and unknown to Mr. E. directing that he should be supplied from the public offices of the state with such copies of surveys or records as he might suppose useful for his purpose. He collected no small amount of information for the Jersey map.

The premature death of this useful man has also deprived the country of an American atlas, which he had been solicited to undertake by a number of enterprising individuals. Nothing perhaps would more conclusively have shown how defective and erroneous are the European maps as it respects the geography of the United States. The enterprising projectors of the atlas intended it as a national work: they have now to lament the death of him whom they deemed so abundantly qualified to take the lead in

<sup>\*</sup> The writer is informed, that this valuable map will not be lost: the engraving is stated to be already executed, by able artists in Philadelphia, and copies of the work will be published with all convenient expedition by Messrs. James Eastburn & Co. of New-York

this great attempt, and they have candidly expressed that the loss of his assist-

ance is irreparable.

Mr. Eddy was the author of a number of essays which appeared in the newspapers, on botany and other branches of natural history; on geography and the internal improvement of this state. An essay on geography which he intended for publication in this magazine, will probably shortly appear. He was a member of the New-York Historical Society, and, in 1816, was elected to a similar honour in the Literary and Philosophical Society of New-York. To this latter association he communicated an interesting memoir on the geography of Africa. That unfortunate mar ner, Capt. James Riley, the narrative of whose sufferings has awakened so large a portion of public attention, had applied to Mr. Eddy to draw for him a map of part of Africa. This gave Mr. Eddy the occasion of examining the different accounts that had been published by different travellers on African geography; and, without passing sentence of condemnation on any writer for wilful misrepresntations, he gives due credit to the statement of Capt. Riley. Capt. Riley has indeed been pronounced a locae writer by an anonymous reviewer,\* but the testimonies to his worth and veracity are most respectable, and, besides, he is subject to the evidence of living witnesses. It cannot be denied that his work contains most important views of interior Africa; and it is gratifying to observe, that a gentleman possessed of the talents and learning of Hugh Murray, Esq. should, in his enlarged edition of Leyden's Historical Account of Discoveries and Travels in Africa, pay the tribute of high regard to our American nar-

Enough has been said to show that the strongest principle of action in John H. Eddy, was the laudable desire to be useful: that he was superior to making a trade of liberal pursuits, and generous in

pecuniary matters, is admitted by those to whom he was best known. To conclude this hasty sketch: it is unfortunately too frequently our lot to lament the seemingly untimely departure of aspiring genius and worth; but it may confidently be said, seldom could our regret and lamentation be more feelingly bestowed than on the subject of this brief memorial. Time and talents have rarely been more constantly or more undeviatingly directed to objects of substantial importance; and it is painful to reflect that his fatal illness was prematurely induced in consequence of such exertions. Let the qualities of his heart and his moral excellence command our regard; for the services he has rendered let the debt of gratitude be paid to his memory.

W.

Three cases of Gun-shot Wounds, communicated by Wm. Thomas, of Poughkeepsie, Hospital Surgeon to the Division of the Army commanded by Gen. Prown, in the Campaign of 1814.

Major Benjamin Birdsal of the 4th Rifle Regt. was wounded by a musket ball at the storming of Fort Erie, August 15, 1814. The ball struck the base of the under jaw and raked it to the angle where it is articulated with the head. For three days there was no bleeding of importance and the wound was dressed in the usual manner. But on the 4th, when the wounded parts had recovered from the torpor produced by the ball, a violent hemorrhage began, which ceased before any medical aid could be procured (the major being half a mile from the general hospital.) I was at a loss for some time to know whether the blood came from the facial or lingual artery, until the third or fourth hemorrhage, when it proved to be the facial artery that was wounded. The tongue was much injured and the frenum wounded, which, as at first, induced a belief that the lingual artery was the injured one. parts became greatly inflamed and enlarged, and the wounded artery, to the finger, was twice its natural size and beat violently. Compresses of sponge were used, but the involuntary motion of the jaw and the formation of matter crowded the sponge from the artery, and, after repeated trials, they were discontinued. The swelling of the head and the integuments covering the external carotid artery, forbade searching for that artery from whence the facial branches, else it would have been tied, and the only alternative was a compress that would press immova-

<sup>\*</sup> Vide Quarterly Review, No. xxxiv. "Capt. Riley, it would appear, however competent as a mariner, was far from being a good anatomist and physiologist. He has stated that the weight of some of his companions on their reaching Mogadore did not exceed forty pounds each; whereas he ought to have been aware that the weight of the skeleton of a common sized man would be 13½ pounds; the usual weight of the 1 rain 4½ pounds; that of the circulating blood 27 pounds: so that there are 45 pounds without either muscles or intestines." Did the Quarterly Reviewer want more decisive proof of the general inaccuracy of Capt. Riley's whole statement of his shipwreck, sufferings and sojouracyings?

bly on the wounded artery until its walls should unite. The finger was the only compress that could be relied on, and that was employed for thirteen days by relieves every three hours. Perhaps it was not necessary to continue the application of so laborious a compress for so long a time, but the life of a gallant officer was in jeopardy, and it was preserved by the only practicable mode of destroying the wounded artery. Major B. remained with the army until the succeeding winter; and when the inflammation subsided, the discharge from the wound was very great, and the left side of the jawbone, from the centre of the chin to the angle of its union with the head, came off in splinters with the pus: the destruction of the softer parts was great, and presented a large gaping appearance. Major B. has been advised to have the edges scarified and brought together similar to the hair-lip operationsuccess is doubtful. The duct of the parotid gland has been wounded, and there The subis a continual leaking from it. maxillary has been injured and the small glands on the general surface of the wound continually moisten the parts which will oppose the adhesive process.

Capt. James M'Intosh of the 1st Rifle Regt. was wounded by a musket ball in the action at Conjocita creek, it struck him on the left side of his neck, near the 4th coraical vertebre. It wounded the spine and entered the esophagus, and was swallowed without the patient's being conscious of it, and was discharged in a few days afterwards. The concussion of the spine produced a great degree of torpor for many months, particularly of the left arm, (probably one of the coraical nerves was wounded,) and the discharge of spiculari of bone in the pus proved the spine to have been injured. A portion of the liquid food which the captain attempted to swallow, passed out the orifice made by the ball for several weeks. Capt. M'Intosh left the army the succeeding winter, his wound being nearly healed, but there The ball was was a stiffness of his neck. ragged from its collision with the spine, and somewhat diminished in weight.

Lieutenant Jonathan Kearsley of the 4th Rifle Regt. was wounded at Fort Erie on the 15th August, 1814. A musket ball struck his left leg about four inches below the knee, and fractured both bones of the leg badly. The lieutenant was anxious to save his leg, and the operation of amputation was delayed four days longer than was prudent. On the fifth day from the time he was wounded it was taken off, just where the femoral artery passes un-

der the sartorius muscle. The lymphatic vessels were inflamed up to the inguinal glands and the leg somewhat swollen, it was evident that twenty-four hours longer delay must have placed it beyond the amputating period—and the lieutenant was in imminent danger from the delay which had occurred; but it was thought better to take off the thigh in its present situation than risk further delay; after tying the femoral artery and the profunda, the torniquet was loosened, and the surface of the stump appeared to be crowded with leaking arteries, and before the patient could be removed from the table, seven-teen arteries were tied. There were several peculiarities attending this case, but the object of making it public is to show the importance of early amputations, when the character of the injury clearly makes it necessary. Had the limb been amputated on the field, not more than five or six arteries would have required the ligature, and the experience of the campaign proved that primitive operations were the most successful. The system will not remain tranquil beyond a day; and delay after that period endangers the lives of the wounded, and I do not recollect a fatal case during the campaign of 1814, where amputation was performed within thirty hours after the wound was received; on the contrary, a large proportion of the deferred operations of the campaign were fatal.

Second Memoir on the Genus Apris, containing the Description of 24 new American Species. By C. S. Rafinesque.

I shall now add 24 new species, which I observed in 1817, to the 12 already described in my first memoir on this genus, (Amer. Monthly Magazine, vol. i. p. 360.) I mean to proceed every year in the investigation of this interesting genus, which may properly be called the cattle of the ants. I have ascertained by actual observation the truth of Hubert's discovery respecting this singular fact, having detected the ants in their management of these animals: I have seen them carrying their eggs and young on the plants adapted for their food, surveying their growth and progress, feeding on their honey, walking and rambling over them without disturbing them in the least, &c. It appears that several species are raised by each species of ants; but the same species is not raised by different ants, and each herd or colony belongs to a peculiar tribe of ants, which does not suffer other tribes of the same species to come and invade their property; and if any dares to do it, a war often ensues. These wonderful facts are not the most astonishing among those belonging to the natural history of the ants; a genus of insects which has claimed my most constant attention, and which I hope to illustrate shortly by describing the American species thereof; their policy exceeds that of many human societies!

All the species of the genus Aphis have many enemies, such as birds, reptiles, and the larva of several species of the genera Syrphus, Hemerobius, &c. which destroy them sometimes by thousands, else they would often propagate to an incredible extent; yet they are very hurtful to many plants, which they disease, reduce to inanition, and sometimes kill, by depriving them of their sap or juice. When they attack garden plants, they may be destroyed by rubbing a wet feather on those plants, they are easily detached and killed by it; they may also be easily killed by the smoke of tobacco or brimstone.

About 60 European species are known. I have detected already 36 species in the United States, where I suspect that many hundreds exist. I shall proceed to enumerate those observed last year in the state of New-York, mostly near Fishkill, and conclude by a synoptical division of the species already observed.

oblong, green, brown or blackish, with two pale stripes on the back; antens nearly as long as the body and brownish, appendages very short, legs black at the base and tip, white in the middle; wings, with a brown spot in the males. The young ones are green, the old ones are blackish.

14. Aphis diplepha. Eody oboval, pale green, with two rows of bristles on the sides of the back, eyes black, antens rufous as long as the body, legs rufous, appendages longer than the vent, which is acute. This species is found on many garden roses, the specific name means double ciliated.

15. Aphis rhodryas. Body oboval oblong, pale green, antens two-thirds of the length of the body, brown as well as the legs, appendages short.—On many wild roses, which the specific name indicates.

16. Aphis viburnum-opulus. Body oboval, slate colour, antens black, white at the base, very short, only one-fourth of the body's length, appendages black and very short, vent black, legs black, white at the base. The young ones are of a greenish gray. This species feeds on the leaves instead of the stems; as usual with most of

the species, it deforms the leaves and rolls them over its nest.

17. Aphis viburnum-acerifolium. Body oboval, olivaceous brown, head black truncated, antens two-thirds of body's length brown, black at the top, as well as the legs, appendages shorter than the vent, which is acute. The young ones are olivaceous rufous; the males are entirely blackish or black, with a black oblong spot on the wings This species is raised by the formica melanogaster, or the black belly ant with red breast, head and feet, and it is upon it that I have observed many of the facts noticed in the introduction.

18. Aphis crategus-coccinea. Body oboval, pale green, with two dark stripes on the back of a brownish green; antens green half of body's length, appendages very short, vent acute. Feeds on the leaves of the crategus coccinea.

19. Aphis cornus-stricta. Body oboval, black, head squared truncated; antens two-thirds of body's length with a white base, legs white at the top, appendages very short, vent nearly acute. The males have the wings double the body's length, with a large black oblong spot underneath. Covering the branches (rarely the leaves) of the cornus stricta.

20. Aphis populus-grandidentata. Body oboval obtuse, reddish black, head truncated, back annulated, antens one-third of body's length, appendages obtuse, exceedingly short, vent obtuse. Male with many oblong blackish spots on the wings. This species is found on a very high tree, and often on the upper leaves and branches. Length one line. It is remarkable by the many spots on the wings of the male, while most of the species have only one large spot on the lower side of each wing, and a few species have unspotted wings

21. Aphis populus-trepida. Body oboval, pale green, with two dark or brown stripes on the back, which is annulated, head truncated, antens whitish two-thirds of body's length, feet whitish, appendages elongated, as long as the vent, which is acute. I have not seen the male of this species.

22. Aphis jacobea-balsamita. Body oboval oblong, very slightly annulated, entirely of a shining bronze colour; antens as long as the body, not shining, with some brown rings; legs with black knees and articulations; appendages black, stiff, longer than the vent, which is acute appendiculated. A very fine species of a metallic brass colour, the young ones are more oblong, darker, more annulated; the old ones are of a light or pale colour, nearly obtuse behind, and smooth or scarcely annulated.

23. Aphis oreaster. Body oblong, of a brownish or dark bronze colour; head truncated; antens brown, as long as the body, legs brown; appendages longer than the vent, which is appendiculated; males with unspotted wings. Found on several species of aster on the highlands, particulally the aster simplex; the specific name means mountain-asters.

24. Aphis erigeron-strigosum. Body oboval oblong, reddish; antens as long as the body, blackish as well as the legs; appendages longer than the vent which is mucronute. In the old ones the body becomes flattened, of a reddish brown, and the appendage of the vent becomes longer.

25. Aphis gibbosa. Body oboval, reddish fulvous, head truncated, thorax yellowish and gibbous, abdomen acute slightly annulated; antens longer than the body, brown, base gray; legs gray, knees and feet black; appendages brown, longer than the vent, which is appendiculated; males with unspotted wings. Found near Newburgh, on several species of solidago, particularly the S. odora, S. altissima, &c.

particularly the S. odora, S. altissima, &c. 26. Aphis xanthelis. Body oblong cuneate, of a dark brown bronze colour, head truncated, abdomen slightly annulated; antens as long as the body, blackish as well as the legs; vent acute, appendages elongated erect: males blackish, with a linear yellowish spot on the wings. Noticed on the solidago nemoralis; size very unequal, from half a line to two lines long: the specific name means yellow spotted.

27. Aphis annulipes. Body oboval, reddish brown, head truncated; antens twothirds of body's length; legs with pale rings; vent obtuse, appendages very short divergent. Observed in September near Oysterbay, Long-Island, on the Hieracium gronovi and H. paniculatum, length one line.

23. Aphis hieracium-paniculatum. Body oblong, of a shining reddish brown, abdomen a little curved or depressed above, and annulated; antens as long as the body, whitish at the base as well as the legs; vent acute, appendages elongated horizontal: male with vertical appendages, mucronute vent, and wings with a greenish brown spot. Found on the hieracium paniculatum only, in October, near Flatbush, Long-Island, a very singular species, the bind part of the body is raised; the males are much larger than the females.

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29. Aphis verbena-hastata. Body pale green annulated oboval; antens as long Vol. 111.—No. 1.

as the body, head truncated, appendages short. Length of the body one line, vent mutic.

30. Aphis polanisia-graveolens. Body black oblong oboval slightly annulated; antens as long as the body, base and top gray; legs with the base and a ring in the middle gray; appendages longer than the vent, which is acute; males with a brownish spot on the wings. Found near Newburgh, in June, on the leaves and flowers of the polanisia graveolens or cleome dodecandra L. where it is singular that they should be raised, since the vicidity of this plant must be some impediment: length of the body one line.

31. Aphis arabis-mollis. Body oboval oblong glaucous green, a row of black dots on each side; antens brown nearly as long as the body, appendages short, vent acute. A small species, less than one line in length.

32. Aphis polygala-senega. Body oboval brown; antens longer than the body, with pale rings, as well as the legs; appendages short, vent nearly obtuse. Noticed in June; length about one line.

33. Aphis brassica-napus. Body elliptic, pale greenish, covered with a white dust, a blackish spot on each side; head narrow truncated; antens half body's length, blackish as well as the legs; vent acute, appendages short, dentiform. Found in gardens, sometimes also on the brassica.

34. Aphis erigeron-canadense. Body oboyal green; antens brown, shorter than the body; appendages brown, clongated one third of total length, oviduct clongated. The body is about one line long, the oviduct appears as a third appendage. Found on Long-Island.

35. Aphis ambrosia. Body oboval, yellow, acute behind; head truncated; antens half the length of the body, a little brownish, feet tipped with brownish; appendages brown elongated upright: very small, body only half a line long. Found on Long-Island on several species of the genus ambrosia: they are raised and bred by a new species of ants, which I have called formica fasciata.

36. Aphis acaroides. Body oboval redish, obtuse behind, antens very short, feet brown, appendages obtuse wart shaped. The smallest species observed, scarcely one-fourth of a line long, having much the appearance of an acarus; found also on Long-Island on the dileptium virginicum, (lepidium virginicum L.) raised likewise by the formica fasciata, which is itself rather a small ant.

Whenever a genus becomes extensive in species, it is necessary to divide it in sub-genera and sections, in order to reach with a greater degree of facility the knowledge of the species which it contains. I shall therefore propose the following temporary divisions among the American species already detected.

## I. Division. Antens bent.

- Sub-genus. Cladoxus. Body flattened, no appendages, antens club-shaped. Sp. 12.
- 2. Sub-genus. Loxerates. Body thick, with appendages, antens not clubshaped.
  - 1. Section. Body-annulated. Sp. 1.
  - 2. Section. Body not annulated. Sp. 2.

### II. Division. Antens not bent.

- 3. Sub-genus. Dactynotus. Body or back annulated.
  - Section. Antens shorter than the body. Sp. 20, 21.
  - 2. Section. Antens as long as the body. Sp. 22, 26, 28, 29, 30.
  - 3. Section. Antens longer than the body. Sp. 25.
- 4. Sub-genus. Adactynus. Body not annulated.
  - Section. No appendages. Sp. 3.
     Section. Usual appendages, anten
  - 2. Section. Usual appendages, antens shorter than the body. Sp. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 27, 33, 34, 35, 36.
  - 3. Section. Usual appendages, antens as long as the body. Sp. 10, 13, 14, 23, 24, 31
  - 14, 23, 24, 31.
    4. Section. Usual appendages, antens longer than the body. Sp. 2, 11, 23.

Memoir on the Crystallization of Snow; read before the Lyccum of Natural History, New-York, April 8th, 1817. By P. S. Townsend, M. D.

The doctrines of crystallization have long received the attention of chemical philosophers. Of late years, the elucidations of the Abbè Haüy, on this subject, have far outstripped the labours of others; and his discoveries, going to establish the identity of chemical laws and mathematical demonstration, have given a peculiar grandeur to this part of analytical philosohpy, and left little else to be done by those who follow him. Crystallography, however, where it applies to the evanescent forms of watery concretions, has not been much attended to. The observance of these forms, and the delineation of the varieties they assumed, was all that seemed necessary: for the component parts of water were well known, and whatever

shape it might assume on crystallization, did not seem to have, as in salt and other substances, any particular relation to its chemical constitution. The practical utility of such investigation, therefore, was, in regard to water, no longer thought of, while its modes of congelation were from time to time expatiated upon, rather with the air of speculative relaxation than severe discrimination. Much, however, has even in this way been accumulated; and though much may remain to be known, I believe, in what I have to offer there will be found little if any originality.

Water, undergoing congelation in the heavens, and falling upon the earth, exhibits itself in the form either of snow or hail; that congealing upon the surface of of the earth is termed ice. "Hail is of the same nature as ice: snow is of the same nature as white frost. That snow may be formed, it is necessary that the aqueous particles diffused through the air should congeal before they have united into gross drops."\* The causes producing solidification in bodies, may sometimes so operate, that the masses concreting shall assume certain regular and systematic figures. These, in chemistry, are termed crystals. In water, crystallization is ascribable only to abstraction of caloric; but in other substances it is effected also by evaporation. The crystals of snow, particularly, are distinguished from all others in another respect; viz. they consist of little, thin, smooth, and narrow bars of transparent ice, so disposed that they form planular or flattened hexagonal siellæ, or stars, rather than solid masses of a cuboidal or pyramidal configuration. These stellæ, or stars, though of sufficient magnitude for occular in-spection, are, however, of rare occurrence, "the flocculi being ordinarily of irregular and unequal figure."† Hence they have been remarked upon by very When they do occur, therefore, few. they should be noted. I had the satisfaction of witnessing these beautiful and singular configurations on Saturday afternoon, the 1st of March, 1817; and again a few days after that. The weather on the day that I first discovered them, was cloudy, with the wind at S. W. but so moderate as not to be perceptible. The temperature of the air was about 30° or 31°. These forms were assumed when the snow fell very gently, and in such

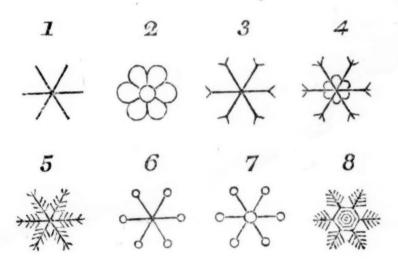
<sup>\*</sup> M. De Ratte. Vide Art. Neige, Encyclopedie des Sciences et des Arts. Paris. 1774.

<sup>†</sup> Vide Art. Neige, Encyclop. des Arts et des Sciences.

small quantities that it was hardly noticed. The radii of the stars were all of equal length, diverged in the same plane, and at exact angles of 60°, the length of each radius about the 1-7th of an inch. When the snow fell in quantities, these forms were no longer visible, and it appeared, as usual, in flocculi of minute needles irregularly associated. The state of the atmosphere on both the days when I observed these crystals was not materially different.

By referring to the article Neige, in the French Encyclopedia,\* I found this subject there treated at large by Mons. De Ratte,† the author of that article. The varieties spoken of by M. De Ratte, are found most beautifully and minutely

delineated in the same work, as copied from the Miscellanea Berolinensia, vol. vi. and amount to seventeen. The basis of the crystal in these stellæ remains the same in each, viz. a planular, hexangular star; and the varieties they exhibit seem rather to have the appearance of extrinsic decoration than any radical The modifications refer either mutation. to the radii or the centre. The following are those which came under my notice on the days above mentioned. They all seem to differ more or less from those delineated in the French Encyclopedia, except the first and second; but could I have inspected them by the microscope, it is probable I should have found a more general analogy.



P. S. T. del.

A. Anderson, sculp.

Crystals enlarged 12 from nature.

1st. The crystal here is a simple hexangular star—the radii plain little needles of equal length and breadth, and the centre formed simply by their convergence—the angle of convergence in this as well as in all the succeeding, and in those given by M. De Ratte, being uniformly at 60 degrees.

2d. The radii and centre are both so expanded as to resemble the petals and disk of a compound flower. Seen also in Feb. 1318, by the Rev. Mr. Schaeffer, of New-York.

3d. The same as the first, i. e. a simple star, differing from it only in having the extremities of the radii bifurcated, these bifurcations being at angles of 60° to the parent radius, and about 1-4th the length of that radius.

4th. The ends of the radii arc, in this

variety, forked into three prongs, which are of the same length, and diverge as in the last, at angles of 60°. Proceeding from the centre of the star, and between every two radii, are petals of half the length of the radii.

5th. The radii three-pronged as before, and after the same manner—pinnated about midway, towards the centre of the star, the pinnæ or collateral branches being of equal length, and in the proportion to the main radius of about one to eight. Seen also by Mr. Schaeffer.

6th. A simple star, except a circular flat knob on the extremity of each radius—the diameter of this knob about the 1-16th of an inch.

7th. Like the last, except that the radii converge also on a central knob, whose diameter appeared double that of the circumferal knobs.

8th. The centre an equilateral hexagonal plane; with a succession of similar hexagonal figures drawn upon it, one within the other. The radii proceed from each

<sup>\*</sup> Vide Encyc. des Arts et des Sciences.— Folio, printed at Paris, 1774. (des planches Physiques.)

<sup>†</sup> Perpetual Secretary of the Royal Society of Sciences of Montpelier.

angle of the plane, and are about equal in length to its diameter, i. e. about the 1-7th of an inch; hence this star was larger than the rest, though the radii remain of the same length in all. Each radius is supplied with pinnæ, which branch off from near the place of insertion of the radius. These pinnæ amount to four or five on each side, and gradually decrease in length towards the extremity of the radius, towards which also they all incline by angles of 60 degrees, the longest pair of pinnæ being nearly of equal length with the radius.

It will be remembered that all these modifications are upon the same plane, and that the radii are constantly six in number.

This peculiar, extraordinary, and beautiful species of crystallization, as I have before remarked, has been noticed but by very few. Muschenbroeck saw two sorts only, viz. the six-petal'd-flower, and stars with little branches on each ray. M. Cassini saw, in 1692, the last kind mentioned by Muschenbroeck, with this modification, viz. the collateral branches had leaves branching from them. Erasmus Bartholini assures us that he has seen pentagonal stars; and that some have even seen octangular. But Dr. Grew\* asserts, that when they do deviate from the hexangular it is always into the dodecangular formation.

One solitary author, Beckman, declares that he saw niveous crystallizations in the form of hexangular pillars, that they occurred at Frankfort, upon the Oder, in The analysis of these columns would present a deposition of so many hexagonal laminæ, so that the tendency to hexangular crystallization is apparent here

#### CAUSES.

How snow should take on this beautiful stellated crystallization, and by what operation the various modifications of these stars are produced is not yet ascertained. Grew, however, has endeavoured to clear up this matter by comparing the crystals of snow with those of other substances. He has not particularized any modification excepting that wherein the radii of the stars are pinnated with collateral branches diverging at acute angles. The following are his own words; "Nitre crystallizes in the same slender spiculæ. Salt of hartshorn, sal ammoniac, and some other volatile salts, besides their main and longer shoots, have other shoots branched out

from them; resembling, as those the main, so these the collateral points of snow. But the icicles of urine are still more near: for in the salt of hartshorn, although the collateral shoots stand at acute angles with the main, yet not by pairs at equal height; and in sal ammoniac although they stand diametrically opposite or at equal height, yet withal at right not acute angles. Whereas in the icicles of urine they stand at equal height and at acute angles both; in both like those of snow.\* And it is observable that the configuration of feathers is likewise the same: the reason whereof," he quaintly remarks, "is because fowls having no organs for the evacuation of urine" (an egregious error by the by,) "the urinous parts of the blood are evacuated by the habit or skin, where they produce and nourish feathers." From all this reasoning he concludes, that the spiritous and aqueous particles of the drops of rain, descending into a colder region of the atmosphere, are apprehended in their descent by those of a nitro-urinous, but chiefly urinous nature. The whole mass then congeals into these little starry crystals, which are variously modified as they meet with gales of warmer air, or impinge and rub against each other. By these means, says he, "some are a little thawed, blunted, frosted, clumpered; others broken; but the most hanked and clung in several parcels together, which we call flakes of snow."

Dr. Clarke too, observed the stellar crystallization of snow, on the 2d of April, 1800, during his travels in Russia.† The thermometer of Celsius stood at 5° below the freezing point, (i. e. 27° Fahrenheit), The crystals were all precisely alike, viz. of the shape of little wheels, of about the diameter of a pea, each having six spokes or radii. "This appearance continued," he remarks, "during three hours, in which time no other snow fell." He also states that the weather was calm; "the snow falling gently upon us as we drove along the streets" 1 [St. Petersburgh].

So also Grew. "He who wishes to learn the nature of Snow," says Grew, "should observe it when it is thin, calm and still." The same is confirmed by Monge, President of the late French Institute, who has likewise noticed this beautiful phenomenon. Dr. Black too, corrobo-

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. Trans. of Royal Soc. Lon. No. 92, by

Dr. Nehemiah Grew. † Vid. Trans. of Royal Soc. Lon. He called it Nix Columnaris.

See figures 5 and 3.

Vol. i. p. 6.

Vague notices of niveous crystals have occassionally appeared in our newspapers; but I cannot discover any accurate descriptions of them in these sources.

rates this fact, and remarks that the weather should also be "very cold."\*

We hence perceive, that the observations of Grew, Black, Clarke and Monge, as well as my own, all tend to the conclusion, that these crystals are more frequent and more regularly formed, when the atmosphere is in a state of quiescence—a conclusion which might have been readily anticipated, when we call to our recollection that a state of quiescence is considered essential to the crystallization of all other substances.

But Macquart informs us, that niveous crystals are observed at Moscow, "when it snows violently and the atmosphere is not too dry!"†

Dr. Black declares that they are pure icy concretions. That they are oftener formed in the clouds than upon the earth, Dr. Black very rationally supposes to be owing to the fewer obstacles which exist there to oppose the peculiar crystallic disposition of water. He thinks too, polarity has something to do with it. He does not believe that an admixture of saline or other particles is necessary to their formation, this being disproved on experiment; for the water of these crystals is purer than any other natural water. And hence he calls it a property of pure water.

Beccaria supposest the crystals of snow as well as the drops of rain attributable to electrical agency. In snow it acts with less energy than in hail, hence, says he,

the difference of density. In like manner he adds, the drops of rain from thunder clouds are larger than those from others.

In the opinion of M. De Ratte, the agents to which these extraordinary phenomena are ascribable, are the following: "the degree of cold, its mildness or its rapid accumulation, (sa lenteur ou son accroissement rapide,) the direction and violence of the wind, the part of the atmosphere from whence the snow falls, and the various kinds of exhalation mingled with the congealing water."\* The agency of any extraneous matters, whether saline or other exhalations, in the formation of these crystals, as suggested by this author and Dr. Grew, must be doubted, after what has just been stated from Dr. Black. Monsieur De Ratte is, no doubt, right in supposing the crystallization of snow to be more or less influenced by the rest of these agents; but in regard to the immediate cause of their production, as with all the other results of the minute affinities of matter, † it is impossible perhaps ever to arrive at the truth. And it is as yet doubtful, whether philosophers have even approximated to this point. For without recurring to the less supposed influences, or taking any notice of Caloric, as connected with the explanation of this subject, we see the question still asked, whether or no, these phenomena are to be ranked in the great class of Galvanic or Magnetic agency. P. S. T.

ART. 2. Remarks on Antiquities, Arts, and Letters, during an Excursion in Italy, in the years 1802 and 1803. By Joseph Forsyth, Esq. Boston, 1813. Wells and Lilly, 8vo. pp. 443.

INNUMERABLE are the books that have been published on Italy, but none, we conceive, more admirably calculated to impress just and lively conceptions of its present state, than the volume before us. Deeply imbued with the ancient and modern literature of a region interesting not merely to the scholar, but to the man of taste, and the lover of nature, Mr. For-

syth united with his distinguished attainments as a man of letters, a soundness of judgment, keenness of perception, and general capaciousness of intellect that fitted him peculiarly for the survey of a country upon which so much has been said and written, and so little to the purpose. To be sure, there is Mr. Eustace, whose fine taste and classical enthusiasm have supplied us with many and glowing pictures of the remains of ancient art and magnificence that are scattered over the surface of Italy. His descriptions of the scenery and climate, too, of that enchant-

\* See his Chemistry.

† Dr. Hutton's Philosophical and Mathematical Dictionary. Art. Snow.—Vol. ii.

the When it snows violently and the atmosphere is not too dry, the air is observed at Moscow to be loaded with beautiful crystallizations regularly flattened and as thin as a leaf of paper. They consist of a union of fibres which shoot from the same centre to form six principal rays, and these rays divide themselves into small blades extremely brilliant." Macquart.—See Sullivan's View of Nature.

<sup>\*</sup> Encyclop. des Arts et des Sciences-art

<sup>†</sup> Vid. System of Chemistry by that truly logical and accomplished writer Jno. Murray, Esq. of Edinburgh, vol. i. Art. Attraction; and Introduction.

ing land, can scarcely be surpassed in the richness and, we believe, truth of their colouring. His observations on paintings, statues, cameos, &c. may also be read with interest, nor are we at all inclined to quarrel with the vehemency of his invective against the late masters of Italy; neither is our spleen moved against him because he was a catholic, and, of course, an extreme admirer of the Pope and his cardinals, and a well-wisher to the order of things that subsisted in that best of all possible times, the period immediately preceding the Reformation-an event which we had always been accustomed to regard,-erroneously, no doubt,-as the triumph of true religion, but which the Reverend Mr. Eustace has taken especial care to leave us no excuse for longer contemplating as such, by informing us that it sprang "from consciousness of power on one side, and the rage of innova-tion on the other,"—a very luminous and satisfactory explanation, and one which we take the liberty of recommending, as a model of brief and oracular exposition, to the supporters of the true Faith, whenever they are so unfortunate as to become entangled in controversy with Protestant prejudice and bigotry. Again, we say, it is not because Mr. Eustace looked upon the French Revolution as the alpha and omega of human crime and misery, or because he was a staunch adherent of the Romish Church, that we object to his lucubrations on a country where that Revolution has left some of its deepest scarsand where that Church is so maternally attentive to the spiritual welfare of her children, that all her ingenuity seems to be directed to the leaving them as little else to think about, as she well can. All this we conceive, is very beautiful, -only rather late in the day, and not altogether adapted to the darkness of the present age, which in spite of the benevolent remonstrances of Mr. Eustace, and writers of that genus, appears determined to persist in its own crude notions, and to reject, as something partaking of the ridiculous, all his pathetic dissertations and panegyrics upon the divine origin, humbleness and sanctity of the only saving faith .- No, it is for reasons substantially different from objections of a religious nature, that we rank Mr. Eustace, as a writer and observer, in a very inferior rank to that which we would assign to the unprejudiced and eloquent author of the Remarks," &c. a book which every person intending to visit Italy, should previously peruse—we can assure them it is no undelightful task-and deposit in their

malle du voyage, ready to be consulted among the scenes it so pictorially describes .- It is the prejudice-the blind prejudice-that pervades the pages of Mr. Eustace—his determination to lift up the Italians-the modern Italians-above all other nations—the unbounded veneration for antiquity that makes him regard with a complacency truly amusing and edifying acts, which, had they occurred in modern times, he would, and very properly, have branded with reprobation-his absurd endeavours to underrate the value of French literature, and to place the feeble triflers of Naples above Voltaire, Montesquieu, and Buffon—together with the affectation of archaiological sensibility which frequently assumes the appearance of a desire to impose himself upon you for an ancient Roman, and which in one instance, he does not hesitate to say, made him pass by, without visiting, a spot (among the mountains in the vicinity of Verona) inhabited by a very singular race of people, totally distinct from the general population of Italy, and supposed to be descended from the remains of the Cimbri and Teutones, defeated in this neighbourhood by Marius;—these constitute some of the grounds on which we would take our stand against Mr. Eustace as an Italian traveller:-the general aim and desire evinced in his volumes, and not seldom with considerable ostentation, seems to be, the holding forth the Romans, and pretty universally the Italians as the only people deserving the name of a civilized nation, or whose history and monuments ought to excite our curiosity and admiration. Now, we think that there were many features in the Roman character worthy only of unequivocal abhorrence:—sprung from a race of robbers, the Romans appear always, more or less, to have retained the undoubted tokens of their descent;-their arts-their literature-were borrowed tastes-but for war and rapine they were cursed with an innate and almost savage predilection; -ambition in its simplestgrossest-form, was the true passion of this unrefined and cruel people—the mere extension of their dominion furnished the single impulse by which they were actuated in all their foreign enterprises; -not that they were a martial, but that they were only a martial, people is it that we would point out the Romans as the very worst model for a nation to mould its manners and habits after;—the Greeks were ambitious, but their ambition was not confined to the object which formed its exclusive motive with the Romans-havoc, fraud, and oppression always followed in

the rear of a Roman force, and the lands that submitted to their arms became the victims of their tyranny;—the expeditions of the Greeks, most frequently justified by the aggressions of their enemies, generally ameliorated the condition of the people against whom they were directed, and by the introduction of the useful and elegant arts, more than counterbalanced the temporary evils unavoidably attendant on war. In their least civilized state, the Greeks have always appeared to us a more lofty generous-souled-and in many points, a more refined-people than the Romans in the proudest periods of the Republic. Every success of the Romans was a curse every conquest of the Greeks a blessing -to mankind. With the praise to which the primitive purity of their manners, and the intensity of their patriotism, unquestionably entitle them, we cordially agree, and unite with Mr. Eustace in his admiration of their literati, and the mighty and majestic monuments of their former power and magnificence;—but here we stop;we are not prepared with him, to worship the purple either of the Cæsars or the Popes—we cannot forget that the guilty greatness of Rome was founded in the subjection and plunder of the world-that her eagles were the uniform harbingers of blood and destruction-that fraud and assassination were the steps by which she mounted to glory—and that the triumphs of her arms impeded, in an incalculable degree, the improvement and civilization of the human race. The countrymen of Washington should ever remember that the bases of true greatness are laid in the arts of peace, and that more real glory is derived from the noiseless labours of civil wisdom, than from all the false and glittering pageantry of military or imperial despotism.

Too long has Mr. Eustace detained us from the interesting and, indeed, delightful volume which we are solicitous to introduce to the notice of our readers. Never perhaps, has Italy been sketched with so elegant, vigorous, and masterly a pencil; -never have the vestiges of ancient grandeur, or the labours of modern genius and taste, been so clearly and vividly delineated as in the pages of Mr. Forsythyet it must not be supposed that the talents of the author are simply those of an archaiologist, or that he carried with him to Italy a mind intent only upon the beautiful, but inanimate, objects of art; -- his intellect was too extensive in its grasphis powers of observation were too various and independent—to be confined to the analysis of buildings, and statues, and

pictures; -these, as we have said, he describes-and his remarks upon subjects that had exhausted the eulogistic or depreciating talents of his predecessors, have an animation and originality that must excite the surprise of all who reflect upon the difficulty of saying any thing at once true and novel upon topics which have been the themes of discussion for so many centuries; -- but it would be doing this eloquent writer a great injustice to suppose that he travelled merely as a connoisseur-that he was so steeped in virtû, as to pass through a country like Italy without bestowing a thought upon any object that did not make an immediate appeal to his taste or imagination,-that the character, the manners, the pursuits, and political condition of her improving, though still degraded population, should not call forth any observations from a writer so eminently and variously gifted, would be a just cause of surprise, and to be accounted for only on the score of indolence, or by supposing him to have enjoyed too little leisure or opportunity for the exercise of other powers than those possessed by ordinary travellers. But if Mr. Forsyth were deficient in affording us information respecting the important and primary objects of enquiry to which we have alluded, he could not plead the want either of time or opportunity as a sufficient excuse for his sins of omission: -a residence in Italy of two entire years would enable an acute and active mind (and the mind of Mr. Forsyth was active and acute in the highest degree) to collect and combine together a mass of usefel and instructive intelligence on the actual condition of the people-he had, besides, access to the highest and best informed society of the country, and as far as we can gather from his own unestentatious language, the esteem in which he was generally held afforded him every desirable means of obtaining, viva voce, information upon every topic which conversation was capable of elucidating-and now having stated to our readers what they have a right to expect from Mr. Forsyth, it seems but fair to inform them he has availed himself to the utmost of all his advantages, and given us a book upon one of the most interesting regions of Europe, superior in nearly every respect to the works that have hitherto fallen in our way. His style is original in a very eminent degree-brief, vigorous, and animated-nothing of the set air of regular composition about itno laborious effort at effect;-but in every page you meet with those unsought graces of diction which captivate the at-

tention, when the studied beauties of fine writing would fail altogether of producing the slightest impression. It is not art, but its real or apparent absence, that lends to Mr. Forsyth's style its chief and prominent attractions—it has all the life and vivacity of high-toned conversationevery object is presented to you through a clear and transparent medium that permits you to form an idea of its outline and essential qualities as correct, nearly; as if you actually beheld it; -were we disposed to raise any objection, we should, perhaps, be tempted to say that the composition is too uniformly ambitious and brilliant, and maintains an elevation to which the minds of readers in general, are not always disposed to soar-it may be, that Mr. Forsyth is too constantly splendid-it is possible that he sacrifices a little too much to the desire of dezzling the imagination—and that the web of his diction would be improved were its rich and sparkling materials interwoven with threads of a less gorgeous tint ;-we cannot be always roving on the mountaintops-we love occasionally to descend into the valleys-to repose our wearied limbs, and refresh our exhausted faculties, in the calm and humble shades of their solitary retreats; -Mr. Forsyth was a man of unusually comprehensive and original intellect-habituated to depend upon the dictates of his own judgment-and rarely drawn aside by prejudice or false enthusiasm—and this temperament of his mind is evinced in almost every subject upon which he touches. Seldom is it that he leans upon the crutches of another's opinion,—where he has nothing valuable to offer of his own, he is usually silent-and the treasures of others are rarely rendered subsidiary to a mind wealthy even to overflowing in its own resources.—This intellectual independence, it is admitted, makes occasional inroads upon the grace and suavity of the general style-and here and there the self-love of the reader is a little revolted by bursts of disdainful observation, and the splenetic eruptions of a conscious superiority :- but really, when we consider how frequently we are offended by the unbounded and baseless arrogance of modern writers,-with all the pride, but none of the pretensions of genius-and turn in disheartening retrospect to the quantity of inane and impertinent trash which is almost diurnally disgorged from the press in every Protean shape of instinctive vanity—we do feel disposed to exercise a more than common patience and lenity towards a writer whose extraordinary claims to our atten-

tion may well be pled in apology for an occasional and involuntary acerbity or even haughtiness of manner.

A short biography of the author is préfixed, from which we shall extract such passages as we think necessary to let cur readers into a knowledge of the habits and dispositions of Mr. Forsyth.

and dispositions of Mr. Forsyth. Joseph Forsyth was a native of Elgin, ' in the county of Moray, in Scotland. His parents were respectable--his father was a merchant of long and reputable standing. Joseph was early sent to the grammar school of Elgin, where his progress was so rapid that his master proncunced him, when only twelve years of age, fit for the university. He was accordingly entered at King's College, Aberdeen, and here the superiority of his exercises, and the gentleness of his disposition soon won the attention of his tutor, Professor Ogilvy. "As he successively passed under the care of the professors, he found himself the object of their approbation and solicitude. Returning every summer to the bosom of his family, he devoted his whole time to study, and thus laid the foundation of that eminent knowledge of the Greek and Roman classics, which it was the business and chief pleasure of his life afterwards to complete. On concluding the four years usually employed in the Scotch universities, his parents left to himself the choice of a profession, but with a secret hope that he would prefer the church; his natural diffidence, and the little prospect he then saw of obtaining a patron, determined him on trying to turn his classical acquirements to some account in that universal mart-London." There he entered into an engagement with the master of a respectable academy in the neighbourhood of the metropolis-where for some time he officiated as assistant—but subsequently purchased the establishment -and for thirteen years conducted it "on his own account with the highest reputation and success. The drudgery and irksomeness of this business were too much for his strength and spirits. tendency to pulmonary complaints, he was, during this period, twice reduced by them to the brink of the grave. Seeing the impossibility of struggling longer with such incongruous duties as the care of his health, and the conscientious superintendance of the education of nearly an [a] hundred boarders, he resigned the charge, and retired to Devonshire in the spring

of 1801, to recruit his constitution.

The remainder of the memoir we should injure by abbreviation—it embodies the regrets of a relation—and the sacred

he was introduced to Fontana, brother of the Abatte,—Fontana is known as the reviver of a very useful art—the lectures of the anatomical professors of Europe are frequently illustrated by specimens of imitative anatomy-and the writer of this article has seen some exquisite proofs of Fontana's plastic skill in the extensive private museum of Mr. Brookes, in London.-Fontana is described as a man rather of excursive, than profound, know-ledge—but Mr. Forsyth represents him as taking the lead in science, by the junction of considerable worldly talent with respectable professional acquirements; by bringing forth upon the topic in discussion his whole stock of information, and dexterously eluding the dangers of close combat, - by improving and adopting as his own the inventions of others,—and by rendering their abilities subservient to his own views and reputation; -a talent, by the way, which signor Fontana shares in common with greater and meaner men than himself-with heroes and conquerors, with empirics and sciolists; -but what solid reputation can be built upon so frail and disgraceful a foundation? The character once understood, ceases to impose -the imposture detected, we despise the impostor-and strip the faded and fraudful laurel from the unblushing brow that so shamelessly assumed it .- Fontana is, however, evidently a person of talents—his diligence is astonishing-and he appears to have brought imitative anatomy to a perfection truly wonderful.

"He readily detailed to me," says Mr. Forsyth, "the history of imitative anatomy, an art invented by Zumbo, and revived," said Fontana, "by me. I began with a very young artist, whom I instructed to copy the human eye in wax. This I showed to Leopold, who, pleased with the attempt, and desirous that his sons should learn anatomy without attending dissections, ordered me to complete the

whole system.

"I stood alone in a new art, without guide or assistants. Anatomists could not model, and modellers were ignorant of interior anatomy. Thus obliged to form workmen for myself, I selected some mechanical drudges, who should execute my orders without intruding into my design. Superior artists are too full of their own plans to follow patiently another's, too fond of embellishing nature, to toil in the slavish imitation which I required. Such difficulties I surmounted; but before I finished the system, the funds had failed."

"This active Prometheus is creating a decomposable statue, which will consist of Vol. III.—No. 1.

ten thousand separate pieces, and three millions of distinct parts, both visible and tangible. I saw only the head and upper region of the trunk; but this machine appeared to me as sensible to the weather as its fleshy original is. The wood is so warped by the heat, that the larger contours are already perceptibly altered, and the pieces are connected by pegs, which become unfit on every change of the atmosphere. When I suggested this to the cavalier—'The objection is nothing. Ivory is too dear: papier maché has been tried, but it failed.'"

Some of the works of Zumbo are reposited in the museum, and the passage in which Mr. Forsyth alludes to them, is a striking example of his powers in the delineation of the repulsive and horrid. In perusing it the blood seemed to chill in our veins, and the flesh to creep on our bones.

"Wax was first used in imitating anatomy by Zumbo, a Sicilian of a melancholy, mysterious cast, some of whose works are preserved here. Three of these bear the gloomy character of the artist, who has exhibited the horrid details of the plague and the charnel-house, including the decomposition of bodies through every stage of putrefaction—the blackening, the swelling, the bursting of the trunk—the worm, the rat, and the tarantula at work—and the mushroom springing fresh in the midst

of corruption.'

"The Royal Gallery," at the period of Mr. Forsyth's visit to Florence, was stripped of those treasures of art with which it had been enriched by the Medici and their Austrian successors. At that time they contributed to the splendour of that immense assemblage of the works of human genius which the triumphs of France had concentrated in the Louvre; -we cannot here refrain from expressing our surprise at Mr. Eustace's disapprobation of this measure on the part of the French-to us it appears so perfectly Roman, that to an admirer of the "lords of humankind" we should have supposed it a proceeding of a most seducing nature, and that all the sympathies of such a person would have been roused in favour of a people who knew so well how to tread in the steps of his classical favourites; -for our parts, we reprobate this spoliating system and however advantageous it may be to the progress of the arts that their chefsd'œuvres should be collected in some central spot-we should be the first to execrate the piratical spirit which takes advantage of victory to rob the vanquished of the purest monuments of their glory.

The Laurentian library contains some Within the last precious manuscripts. twenty-five years it boasted the famous Virgil, written, it is said, in the reign of Valens, and corrected in the fifth century, by the consul Asterius. This celebrated book had been lost and regained by the Florentines, but disappeared during the revolutionary wars, and is now, probably, lost to Florence for ever. The Pandects of Justinian, a remarkably fine copy, experienced a better fortune--on the approach of the French, they were " sent to Palermo for safety. Government, indeed, had always kept them under its own key, and opened them only by torch light to the great, on an order from the senate. Tradition says that this famous code was discovered in a barrel at Amalfi; and Hume, who believes the story, ascribes to this discovery the revival of the Roman law. But it is far more probable, that the Pisans brought it from Constantinople while their commerce flourished in the Levant, and it is certain that, before they took Amalfi, Irnerius had been teaching the Pandects at Bologna."

There are some fine illuminated manuscripts of the classics-Greek and Latin of the date of the eleventh century-fine at least from the brilliancy of the colours, which in that age, were used in an unmixed state-to this, probably, the splendour of the tints is, in a considerable measure,

to be ascribed.

"Some of those illuminations came from the pencil of Oderisi, whom Dante extols as 'the honor of the art;' an art which grew afterwards into a luxury baneful to learning. Every copyist became a painter, and, wasting his time in the embellishing of books, rendered books in general rare. Early in the fifteenth century this art made a most rapid progress, as appears very eminently in some of these manuscripts; and Attaventi, who wrought for the magnificent founder of this library, had brought it nearly to perfection, when printing gave a check to its importance. Hence the works usually shown here as objects of beauty, such as the Pliny, the Homer, the Ptolemy, the Missal of the Florentine Republic, are all of that age, and contain portraits of the Medici, painted in the initials."

The practice of illuminating books is no longer in vogue—indeed the invention of printing speedily put an end to a fashion ridiculous in itself, and which only served to pamper the pride and luxury of a few wealthy egotists, by the possession of books whose costliness necessarily limited them to the most opulent individuals. Manuscript-miniature is now exercised only by a few artists, employed to repair the decayed and decaying volumes of the old libraries.

"I found Ciatti, who ranks first in the art, supplying here lost or damaged leaves; copying in fac-simile the writing of every age, and giving vellum the due tinge of antiquity. His enrichments have all the system of modern composition, though inferior to the old illuminations in their general effect. In the former, we admire an harmonisms design; in the latter, a rich confusion. Such is an English carpet compared with a Persian."

The peculiar talent of the Italians in extemporaneous poetry is well known to most of our readers. Florence has long been celebrated for her Improvvisatori. In the fifteenth century the blind brothers Brandolini acquired no mean reputation for the excellence of their extemporary Latin verse-all Italy lately bung with rapture on the spontaneous effusions of Corilla's wit and fancy—but

"Signora Fantastici is now the improv-

visatrice of the day.

"This lady convenes at her house a crowd of admirers, whenever she chooses to be inspired. The first time I attended her accademia, a young lady, of the same family and name as the great Michael Angelo, began the evening by repeating some verses of her own composition. Presently La Fantastici broke out into song in the words of the motto, and astonished me by her rapidity and command of numbers, which flowed in praise of the fair poetess, and brought her poem back to our applause. Her numbers, however, flowed irregularly, still varying with the fluctuation of sentiment; while her song corresponded, changing from aria to recitativo, from recitativo to a measured recitation.

" She went round her circle and called on each person for a theme. Seeing her busy with her fan, I proposed the Fan as a subject; and this little weapon she painted as she promised, 'col pennel divino di fantasia felice.' In tracing its origin she followed Pignotti, and in describing its use she acted and analyzed to us all the coquetry of the thing. She allowed herself no pause, as the moment she cooled, her estro would escape.

"So extensive is her reading, that she can challenge any theme. One morning, after other classical subjects had been sung, a Venetian count gave her the boundless field of Apollonius Rhodius, in which she displayed a minute acquaintance with all the Argonautic fable. Tired at last of demigods, I proposed the sofa for a task, and sketched to her the introduction of Cowper's poem. She set out with this idea, but being once entangled in the net of mythology, she soon transformed his sofa into a Cytherean couch, and brought Venus, Cupid and Mars on the scene; for such embroidery enters into the web of every improvvisatore. found this morning accademia flatter than

the first. Perhaps Poetry, being one of the children of pleasure, may, like her sisters, be most welcome in the evening.

"I remarked that La Fantastici, when speaking of her art, gave some cold praise to her rival La Bandettini; but she set an old Tuscan peasant above all the tribe, as first in original and poetic thinking. She seemed then to forget her once admired Gianni, the Roman stay-maker. This crooked son of Apollo was the contested gallant of the first beauties in Florence, where he displayed powers yet unequalled in impromptu; defying all the obligazioni or shackles that the severest audience could impose on him. The very idea, however, of imposition is a violence fatal to genius; and the poetical commands thus executed, like laureate odes and other tasks, may show skill, practice, talent; but none of the higher felicities of art."

That all this is very delightful and surprising we cordially admit, and think that an evening the delassemens of which included such a display of talent and eloquence, must approach as nearly as possible to that rapturous state of feeling which we are accustomed to attribute to superior beings :- but, perhaps, our wonder would abate somewhat on a cool examination of the compositions thus thrown forth, in the midst of the united excitements of beauty, music, and elegant conviviality, and where too the suddenness and rapidity of the verse does not permit the exercise of criticism. The poetic facility, besides, of the Italian language, and its richness in rhymes, must be powerful aids to the improvvisatore, who, were he requested to make a rational discourse in prose—where the advantages of his language would cease to assist him -would, in all probability, find himself awkwardly situated. Mr. Forsyth's observations on this subject are judicious and expressed with great elegance.

"Such 'strains pronounced and sung unmediated, such prompt eloquence,' such
sentiment and imagery flowing in rich diction, in measure, in rhyme, and in music,
without interruption, and on subjects unforeseen, all this must evince in La Fantastici a wonderful command of powers; yet,
judging from her studied and published compositions, which are dull enough, I should
suspect that this impromptu exercise seldom
leads to poetical excellence. Serafino d'Acquila, the first improvvisatore that appeared
in the language, was gazed at in the Italian
courts as a divine and inspired being, till he
published his verses and dispelled the illusion.

"An Italian improvvisatore has the benefit of a language rich in echoes. He generally calls in the accompaniment of song, a lute, or a guitar, to set off his verse and conceal any failures. If his theme be difficult, he runs from that into the nearest common-place, or takes refuge in loose lyric measures. Thus he may always be fluent, and sometimes by assident he bright

times by accident be bright.

"I once heard a little drama given extempore with great effect, from the acting talent of the poet: but dramatic poetry is not so much the subject of Italian impromptu as it was among the Greeks. The Greek language and the Italian appear to me equally favourable to this talent. Equally rich, and harmonious, and pliant, they allow poets to alter the length and the collocation of words, to pile epithets on epithets, and sometimes

to range among different dialects.

"In attending to the Italian improvvisatori, I began to find out, or perhaps only to fancy, several points in which they resemble their great predecessor Homer. In both may be remarked the same openness of style and simplicity of construction, the same digressions, rests, repetitions, anomalies. Homer has often recourse to the shifts of the moment, like other improvvisatori. Like them Sometimes he betrays great inequalities. when his speech is lengthening into detail, Sometimes he cuts it short and concludes. when the interest and difficulty thicken, the poet escapes, like his heroes, in a cloud. I once thought of Homer in the streets of Florence, where I once saw a poor cyclic bard most cruelly perplexed in a tale of chivalry. He wished to unravel; but every stanza gave a new twist to his plot. His hearers seemed impatient for the denoument, but still the confusion increased. At last, seeing no other means of escape, he vented his poetical fury on the skin of his tambourine, and went off with a 'maledetto.'

There is a chapter upon the Italian theatre, too long for insertion, but whose interesting details we shall endeavour to condense: - As early as the twelfth century Italy had her Istrioni-mere balladsingers, who never aspired to the personation of character. The moralities, or scriptural dialogues, of the next age, approximated somewhat nearer to the form of the regular drama-and in 1449 the history of Abraham announced the approach of the Tragic Muse. Thirty years afterwards appeared the Orfeo of Politian -a composition constructed upon the Greek model-and which was so generally admired and imitated, that the first regular theatre of modern Europe was built at Milan, in 1490, upon the Greek plan. To Politian's Orfeo succeeded the Sofonisba of Carretto, and in 1515 appeared the first attempt of Trissino; -the taste for Greek tragedy was now epidemicaland was supported by a host of feeble and forgotten writers, whose stiff, solemn, languid dialogues exhibit the form of the classic drama, without a trace of the various and immortal genius that makes us forget its defects.

The translation from Plautus by Hecules, duke of Ferrara, first introduced among the Italians a taste for comedy. Ariosto followed with an original produc-Then came a crowd who wrote learned comedies, to be recited—not on a public stage-no-these grave wits never thought of writing for the peoplebut "in courts, academies, and colleges, as exercises for princes and scholars,' of these "erudite" compositions an intolerable stupidity is the usual characteristic, and where they are not dull, they are obscure .- The "commedie dell' arte," though addressed to the feelings and passions of the populace, and consequently deficient in the higher qualities of the drama, were, nevertheless, vastly more interesting than the writings of the "eruditi,"-action was their principal charm -the dialogue was rarely printed-but the plot being sketched, the filling up of the characters was left to the spontaneous talents of the actors, the varieties of vulgar life afforded an exhaustless diversity of subject, and the wit of the performers

was supplied from the same sources. The degradation of tragedy gave birth to that seducing nondescript, the Operathe same cause, as applied to comedy, produced the Opera Buffa-and in the charms of music, and the attractions of buffoonery—both national passions—the Italians were contented to forget the absurdity of the one, the vulgarity of the other, and the invasion which both were making upon the legitimate drama. Goldoni appeared, and comedy reared her drooping head. For a while he yielded to the prevailing fashion, and his early pieces were written for the old masques -but by the introduction of new beauties, wholly foreign to and unadapted to them, he by degrees, created a taste for superior productions, and at length, though not without some murmurs from the adherents of the old school, succeeded in banishing the masked comedy from the stage This change in the form of altogether. the comic drama produced a correspondent revolution in the style of acting, and instead of the former rant and bombastic extravagance, the performers "affect a temperance bordering upon tameness." They are held in slight estimation by the other classes of society—and rank even below the warblers of the Opera; -their own opinion of their own art (they style it merely recitation) scarcely entitles them to the respect of others-"like showmen in the streets" they expose their scenes

"painted on a pole and underwrit"—and every performance is concluded with a long and mean supplication of the public favour to the next:—the comic actors are principally Lombards,

"And of these the best are enlisted under Goldoni, a relation of the great dramatist. In his company are the two first actors of the day, Zanerini and Andolfati.

"Zanerini's walk is the 'padre nobile,' and surely in pathetic old characters he carries the exquisite and the forceful as far as they can exist together.

"Andolfati excels as a caratterista, and has dramatised for himself some passages in the life of Frederick II. whom he imitates, tale quale, in his voice, walk, and manner. But Andolfati's merit rises far above mimicry; he can thrill the heart as well as shake the sides, and (what is more difficult than either) he can excite through long scenes that secret intellectual smile which, like the humour of Addison, never fatigues."

The remarks upon the genius and character of the celebrated Alfieri are in a style of discriminating criticism very unusual with travellers, who generally praise and depreciate in the lump;—the second paragraph is peculiarly fine-and though the word "SHAKESPEARE" would be a full and imperial answer to his exulting question-"Has England a tragic poet equal to Alfieri?"-and though the justness of the insinuated panegvric is impeached by the allowed tragical superiority of Schiller (a poet whose chief merit is an exaggerated imitation or rather burlesque of the fiercer scenes of the bard of Avon)—we have no hesitation in saying that the sentences in question are such as none but a man of genius could produce.

" Alfieri is, next to Dante, the Italian poet most difficult to Italians themselves. His tragedies are too patriotic and austere for the Tuscan stage. Their construction is simple, perhaps too simple, too sparing of action and of agents. Hence his heroes must often soliloquise, he must often describe what a Shakespeare would represent, and this to a nation immoderately fond of picture. Every thought, indeed, is warm, proper, energetic; every word is necessary and precise; yet this very strength and compression, being new to the language and foreign to its genius, have rendered his style inverted, broken, and obscure; full of ellipses and elisions; speckled even to affectation with Dantesque terms; without pliancy, or flow, or variety,

"Yet where lives the tragic poet equal to Alfieri? Has England or France one that deserves the name? Schiller may excel him in those peals of terror which thunder through his gloomy and tempestuous scenes; but he is poorer in thought, and inferior in the mechanism of his dramas.

"Alfieri's conduct is more open than his works to censure. Though born in a monarchy, and living under mild princes, this count concentrated in his heart all the pride, brutality, and violence of the purest aristocracies that ever oppressed Genoa or Venice. Whoever was more or less than noble became the object of his hatred or his contempt. The same pen levelled his Tirannide against princes, and his Antigallican against plebeians. The patriotism which he once put on could never sit easy upon such a mind, nor fall naturally into the forms and postures of common life. In forcing it violently on he rent the unsightly garb, then threw it aside, and let the tyrant go naked.

"This hatred of princes led him to dedicate his Agis to our Charles I. I admit the jurisdiction of posterity over the fame of dead kings. But was it manly, was it humane, to call up the shade of an accomplished prince, a prince fully as unfortunate as he was criminal, on purpose to insult him with a mock dedication? and of all Italians, did this become Alfieri, the reputed husband of that very woman, whose sterility has extinguished the race of Charles?

"His aristocratical pride, working on a splenetic constitution, breaks out into disgusting eccentricities, meets you at his very door, bars up all his approaches, and leaves himself in the solitude of a sultan. How unbecoming a poet was his conduct to General Miollis, the declared friend of all poets living and dead! How often has he descended from his theatrical stateliness to the lowest scurrility! How true is his own description of himself!

"Or stimandomi Achille, ed or Tersite."

The environs of Florence are indebted for the principal features of their beauty to the agricultural industry of their inhabitants.

"The environs of Florence owe their beauty to a race of farmers who are far more industrious, intelligent, and liberal,\* than

\*" Their liberality is conspicuous in the contributions of their rural fraternities, who come in procession to Florence with splendid fusciacche, and leave their donations in the churches. Hence the clergy keep them well disciplined in faith, and, through the terror of bad crops, they begin to extort the abolished tithes.

"On Easter-eve I remarked a crowd of these farmers collected in the cathedral of Florence, to watch the motion of an artificial dove, which, just as the priests began 'Gloria in Excelsis,' burst away from the choir, glided along the nave on a rope, set fire to a combustible car in the street, and then flew whizzing back to its post. The eyes of every peasant were wishfully rivetted on the sacred puppet, and expressed a deep interest in its flight; for all their hopes of a future harvest depended on its safe return to the altar. 'Quando va bene la colombina, va bene il Fiorentino' is an adage as ancient as the dignity of the Pazzi, who still provide the car.

their neighbours born to the same sun and soil. Leopold toiled to make his peasants all comfortable, and the steward takes care that none shall be rich. They pass the year in a vicissitude of hard labour and jollity; they are seldom out of debt, and never insolvent. Negligent of their own dress, they take a pride in the flaring silks and broad earrings of their wives and daughters. These assist them in the field; for the farms, being too small to support servants, are laboured in the patriarchal style by the brothers, sisers, and children of the farmer.

"Few of the proprietors round Florence will grant leases; yet so binding is the force of prescription, so mutual the interest of landlord and tenant, and so close the intertexture of their property, that removals are very rare, and many now occupy the farms which their forefathers tilled during the Florentine republic.

"The stock of these farms belongs half to the landlord, and half to the tenant. This partnership extends even to the poultry and pigeons: the only peculium of the farmer is the produce of his hives. Hence the cattle run usually in pairs. One yoke of bullocks is sufficient for a common farm. Their oxen are all dove coloured; even those which are imported from other states change their coat in Tuscany, where they are always fed in the stall, and never go out but to labour. They are guided in the team by reins fixed to rings which are inserted in their nostrils; sometimes two hooks joined like pincers are used, like the postomis of Lucilius, which has teazed so many antiquaries.

"Every field in the environs of Florence is ditched round, lined with poplars, and intersected by rows of vines or olive trees. Those rows are so close as to impede the plough; which, though it saves labour, is considered here as less calculated for produce, than the triangular spade, with which the tenant is bound by his landlord to dig or rather to shovel one third of his farm.

"This rich plain of the Val.d'Arno yields usually two harvests a year, the first of wheat, the second of some green crop; which last is sometimes ploughed up, and left to rot on the field as manure for the next. This course is interrupted every third or fourth year by a crop of Turkey wheat, sometimes of beans or rye, and more rarely of oats. Barley was unknown here, until the breweries lately established at Florence and Pisa called it into cultivation.

"As you approach the skirts of this narrow plain, you perceive a change in agriculture. The vine and the olive gradually prevail over corn; and each farm brings a variety of arts into action! In addition to our objects of husbandry, the Tuscan has to learn all the complicate processes which produce wine, oil, and silk, the principal exports of the state. Of corn an average crop brings only five returns in the Florentine territory; in the Senese eight or nine; and the aggregate affords but ten months' subsist-

ence to all Tuscany, although the moun-

taineers live mostly on chesnuts.\*
"This garden of Tuscany seems to require more manure than it produces. To keep it perpetually in crop, the farmers must resort to the infectious sewers of the city; they send poor men and asses to pick up dung on the roads; and, at certain resting places on the highway, they spread litter for the cattle that pass to stale for their benefit."

Mr. Forsyth enjoyed from the roof of the Franciscan convent a view of the Val d'Arno-it is scarcely fair to anticipate the feelings of our readers, but really we cannot refrain from the expression of that rapturous possession which his brief and exquisite description of that delicious scenery took of our mind and senses:in the few lines he has given to its delineation, we seemed to behold the living luxuriancy of the landscape, and we pity those who can peruse it with other emotions.

"It would be ungrateful to leave the environs of Florence without mentioning the pleasure which I once enjoyed 'at evening from the top of Fesole.' The weather was then Elysian, the spring in its most beautiful point, and all the world, just released from the privations of Lent, were fresh in their festivity. I sat down on the brow of the hill, and measured with my enraptured eye half the Val d'Arno. Palaces, villas, convents, towns, and farms were seated on the hills, or diffused through the vale, in the very points and combinations where a Claude would have placed them-

" Monti superbi, la cui fronte Alpina

" Fa di se contro i venti argine e sponda!

" Valli beate, per cui d'onda in onda

" L'Arno con passo signor il cammina!" We give his notice of the convent from

the top of which he surveyed this enchanting scenery. "The top of the hill is conical, and its

summit usurped by a convent of Franciscans, whose leave you must ask to view the variegated map of country below you. Their corridors command a multiplicity of landscape: every window presented a different scene, and every minute before sunset changed the whole colouring. Leopold once brought his brother Joseph up to show him here the garden of his dominions; and this imperial visit is recorded in a Latin inscription as an event in the history of the convent.

"The season brought a curious succession of insects into view. On the way to Fiesole my ears were deafened with the hoarse croak of the cigala, which Homer, I cannot conceive why, compares to the softness of the lily. On my oreturn the lower air was illuminated with myriads of lucciole or fire flies; and I entered Florence at shutting of the gates,

"Come la mosca cede alla zanzara."

Milton and Ariosto have immortalized the secluded and solemn shades of Vallombrosa:-shall we extract Mr. Forsyth's description of the silent and sacred beauties of that majestic retreat?-our limits forbid us-were we to give all that is interesting in his book, we might extract four-fifths of the volume. Camaldoli, however, is less known than the haunted shades of the Vallombrosa—and the sin-gular institution of the *Eremo* will, we trust, awaken the sympathy of our fair

"We now crossed the beautiful vale of Prato Vecchio, rode round the modest arcades of the town, and arrived at the lower convent of Camaldoli, just at shutting of the gates. The sun was set, and every object sinking into repose, except the stream which roared among the rocks, and the convent bells which were then ringing the Angelus.

"This monastry is secluded from the approach of woman in a deep, narrow, woody dell. Its circuit of dead walls built on the conventual plan, gives it an aspect of confinement and defence; yet this is considered as a privileged retreat, where the rule of the order relaxes its rigour, and no monks can reside but the sick or the superannuated, the dignitary or the steward, the apothecary or the bead-turner. Here we passed the night, and next morning rode up by steep traverses to the Santa Eremo, where Saint Romualdo lived and established.

"The Eremo is a city of hermits, walled round, and divided into streets of low, detached cells. Each cell consists of two or three naked rooms, built exactly on the plan of the Saint's own tenement, which remains just as Romualdo left it 800 years ago, now too sacred and too damp for a mortal tenant.

"The unfeeling Saint has here established a rule which anticipates the pains of purgatory. No stranger can behold without emotion a number of noble, interesting young men, bound to stand erect chaunting at choir for eight hours a day; their faces pale, their heads shaven, their beards shaggy, their backs raw, their legs swollen, and their feet bare. With this horrible institute the climate conspires in severity, and selects from society the best constitutions. The

<sup>&</sup>quot; " One half of Tuscany is mountains, which produce nothing but timber, one sixth part consists of hills which are covered with vineyards or olive gardens; the remaining third is plain: the whole is distributed into 80,000 fattorie, or stewardships. Each fattoria includes on the average seven farms. This property is divided among 40,000 families or corporations. The Riccardi, the Strozzi, the Ferroni, and the Benedictines, rank first in the number.

<sup>&</sup>quot; de' tacenti cenobiti il coro, "L' orcane penitenze, ed i digiuni
"Al Camaldoli suo.

sickly novice is cut off in one or two winters, the rest are subject to dropsy, and few arrive at old age."

From Camaldoli Mr. Forsyth proceeded to La Verna-a remarkable Franciscan convent overhanging the precipitous steeps of a lofty Appenine—of which the architect was the founder of the order to

which it appertains.

" Here reigns all the terrible of naturea rocky mountain, a ruin of the elements, broken, sawn, and piled in sublime confusion-precipices crowned with old, gloomy, visionary woods-black chasms in the rock where curiosity shudders to look downhaunted caverns sanctified by miraculous crosses-long excavated stairs that restore you to day-light. This scenery is now under the pencil of Philip Hackart, a Prussian, brought by a reflux of art from the land of Vandals to charm Italy with his landscapes. On the top of the mountain is a mass of marine testaceous petrifactions, where Soldani has collected for his microscopical work, myriads of ammonites and nautili perfect in their forms, yet minute as sand.

" On entering the chapel of the stigmata, we caught the religion of the place; we knelt round the rail, and gazed, with a kind of local devotion, at the holy spot where Saint Francis received the five wounds of Christ. The whole hill is legendary ground. Here the Seraphic father was saluted by two crows, which still haunt the convent; there the devil hurled him down a precipice, yet was not permitted to bruise a bone of him.'

The specimens we have laid before our readers of Mr. Forsyth's style, and his eloquent and forceful manner of treating every topic on which he touches, are so ample that, with the exception of one or two scattered passages, we cannot afford any farther quotations—and all that we can do with respect to the remainder of the journey, is to follow him with rapid though unequal steps, and, if possible, crop, as we proceed, a few of those exquisite flowers which he has so profusely la-

vished over his path.

From La Verna we pass on to Cortona, once a rich and flourishing city, and still considered with respect as the metropolis of the ancient Etruria.-Here the Etrusian Academy hold their sittings, and antiquaries meet you at every step. Halfbosomed in vineyards, and seated on the ascent of a steep eminence,-with broad, black, lofty mountains in the back ground —at some distances it looks "like a pic-ture hung upon a wall." The prospect over the adjacent country from Santa Marguerita—the Thrasimene and Clusian lakes spreading beneath you in silvery lustre—dark-browed mountains lowering in the distance-and the extensive and

diversified vale of Chiana, bound in with its glowing fence of vine-mantled hills, and studded with cottages, villas, "and convents of sobergray," extending before you in a sort of lively tranquillity-combines so many features of the magnificent and beautiful, that the whole forms a landscape not exceeded by any in Tuscany, excepting, perhaps, the famous Val d'Arno.—Cortona contains about 4000 inhabitants-yet in this little spot the pretensions of nobility are carried to as absurd and disgusting an excess as in Florence,

Rome, or Naples.

We cannot stop to consider Mr. Forsyth's observations upon Sienna, &c. but hasten on with him to the head-quarters of all that is grand and deeply interesting in Italian history and antiquities-of Rome it is hardly possible to form any thing like a correct notion from the innumerable engraved views which crowd the portfolios of the curious, and in which the vanity of the artists has given to its ruins and architectural monuments so many adscititious embellishments, or so enlarged their sites, that "a stranger, arriving here with the expectations raised by those prints, will be infallibly disappointed. The Flaminian Gate is still the principal entrance of Rome. The streets are inconvenient, and the pavement, from its minute reticular construction, peculiarly disagreeable to pedestrians. The only lamps are those suspended before the images of the Virgin-Reflectors (reverberes) were once suggested, but the clergy, no doubt for the sake of decorum and morality, were averse to the innovation, and the streets of Rome are, at the present moment, involved in as comfortable and convenient darkness as a cardinal or Benedictine monk can desire.

Mr. Forsyth divides the architecture of Rome into four distinct species-the works of the Republic-those of the Empire—those of the Middle ages—and the crection of modern times. Our limits will only permit us to make a few observations on those of the Republic and Empire.

Architectural taste was first introduced among the Romans by the Tarquins, and the few remains of the buildings of that early age are manifestly Etruscan. The blocks of which they are composed are massy, regular, but uncemented. walls of a prison, and a common sewer, cannot be expected to evince much grandeur or elegance, but the solidity of those useful constructions show that even in the infancy of their greatness, the Romans aspired to the foundation of an "eternal city." With the kings, the

principal object was the gratification of personal ambition—conquest was the aim of the Republic; the grandest monuments of the commonwealth are the Military Ways, and the roads of Appius, Flaccus, Albinius, and Flaminius, &c. worn as they are with the use of more than twenty centuries, still remain to attest the energy and persevering spirit of their constructors. Of the aqueducts of this period, only portions of the Aqua Martia remain, and Mr. Forsyth seems to be of opinion that the superb arcades which conveyed that water to the Esquiline, are the works of Augustus. The convertibility of the Pagan Temples to the purposes of the Catholic religion has fortunately preserved some of those august edifices from destruction. Of these the Pantheon is the chief. doors are cased in bronze. The light is admitted through "one large orb" in the centre of the roof, and grand, indeed, in the days of her glory, must have been the interior aspect of the Pantheon, when the splendour of an unclouded and meridian sun beamed into its sanctuary, and shed its perpendicular and diffusive radiance on the divine sculptures that seemed to realise the seductive fables of an enchanting mythology. The tombs of the Servilii, Horatii, and Metelli would, at first, appear to belong to the Republicbut the absence of name, epitaph, and indeed, all mark whatever that can assist us in ascertaining the persons or age to which they belong, will not allow us to form any decisive opinion on their antiquity;—they are situated without the Capena gate, and from the aversion entertained in the early times to which they are ascribed, to inhumation within the walls, it has been too arbitrarily decided that they were raised in the times of the Republic-Another sepulchre (the Cornetian) which has been classed with them, was, however, at length discovered in the heart of the city, a circumstance that, in our opinion, at least neutralises the point. None of the tombs belonging to the republican era, have the names of the buried inscribed upon them, with the exception of Cæcilia Metella's, built by Crassus.

Near the tombs on the Appian Way is a small temple ascribed to the Republic, dedicated to the god Rediculus. It was built of red and yellow brick, and the remains are so fresh that it appears as if it had been destroyed but a short while after its erection. The adhesion also of the materials is so intimate, that "each of its puny pilasters appear like one piece," and the sculpturing of the cornice is executed with a delicacy equal to that of the finest

marble. The minute and lavish ornament of this building, the design of which is remarkably poor, induces the author to refer it to a period at least as late as the reign of Severus; and the same reason operates with respect to a temple on a neighbouring hill, said to have been raised to Honour and Virtue.

Under the emperors architecture was patronised, as it had been under the kings, as an art contributing to the personal fame and splendour of the sovereign. Some of the finest works of this period were raised by the vilest characters that ever disgraced humanity. The baths of Caracalla are among the most extensive and sumptuous of the imperial edifices, and those of Diocletian are scarcely inferior in amplitude, or richness of deco-The Triumphal Arches, of Trajan, Titus, Severus, Constantine, Gallienus, &c. are generally heavy and tasteless in their design, and loaded with meretricious embellishments. The mausolea of Augustus and Hadrian are grand and awful even in their ruins, but the proudest structure is the mighty Coliseum, the united work of Vespasian and Titus. We admire, we are astonished at, the majesty of this stupendous edifice, but we abhor the purposes to which it was devoted, and feel powerfully convinced of the imperfection of human virtue, when we reflect that it was under the administration of two of the best and wisest of her emperors, that Rome beheld the rise and completion of a structure, which, however we may admire it as a specimen of national magnificence, can excite, with respect to the scenes it displayed, and was built to display, no other sentiments than those of horror and disgust. The feelings of Mr. Forsyth on this subject are in such perfect unison with our own, that notwithstanding our resolution to refrain from farther quotation, we cannot resist the temptation of giving his sentiments on the cruel and sanguinary sports to which both sexes and all ranks of the Romans were so passionately addicted.

"Every nation has undergone its revolution of vices; and, as cruelty is not the present vice of ours, we can all humanely execrate the purpose of amphitheatres, now that they lie in ruins. Moralists may tell us that the truly brave are never cruel; but this monument says 'No.' Here sat the conquerors of the world, coolly to enjoy the tortures and death of men who had never offended them. Two aqueducts were scarcely sufficient to wash off the human blood which a few hour's sport shed in this imperial shambles. Twice in one day came the senators and matrons of Rome to the

butchery; a virgin always gave the signal for slaughter, and when glutted with bloodshed, those ladies sat down in the wet and streaming arenea to a luxurious supper.

"Such reflections check our regret for its ruin. As it now stands, the Coliseum is a striking image of Rome itself:—decayed—vacant—serious—yet grand;—half gray and half green—erect on one side and fallen on the other, with consecrated ground in its bosom—inhabited by a beadsman; visited by every cast; for moralists, antiquaries, painters, architects, devotees, all meet here to meditate, to examine, to draw, to measure, and to pray."

The extent to which this article has grown compels us, however unwillingly, to come to a conclusion. Our extracts, ample as they are, afford only a slight notion of the innumerable beauties of thought and expression with which this delightful volume abounds,—the variety of its subject matter—or the union it furnishes of sound judgment with a style almost poetical, and which adapts itself, as it were by instinct, to every change of topic, and at once introduces the reader to a most lively and intimate acquaintance with every thing in Italy that can in any way be interesting to him.

We wish to leave our readers in good humour, and we know no better way of accomplishing so desirable an object, than by the concluding this article with a few of Mr. Forsyth's animated reflections upon Naples.

"To a mere student of nature, to an artist, to a man of pleasure, to any man that can be happy among people who seldom affect virtue, perhaps there is no residence in Europe so tempting as Naples and its environs. What variety of attractions!—a climate where heaven's breath smells sweet and wooingly-the most beautiful interchange of sea and land-wines, fruits, provisions, in their highest excellence-a vigorous and luxuriant nature, unparalleled in its productions and processes—all the wonders of volcanic power spent or in action-antiquities different from all antiquities on earth-a coast which was once the fairy-land of poets, and the favourite retreat of great Even the tyrants of the creation loved this alluring region, spared it, adorned it, lived in it, died in it. This country has subdued all its conquerors, and continues to subvert the two great sexual virtues, guardians of every other virtue,—the courage of men and the modesty of women."

G.

ART. 3. Observations on the Geology of the United States of America; with some Remarks on the Effects produced on the Nature and Fertility of Soils, by the Decomposition of the Different Classes of Rocks, and an Application to the Fertility of every State of the Union, in reference to the accompanying Geological Map. With two Plates. By William Maclure. 8vo. pp. 128. Philadelphia. 1817.

SEVERAL years ago Mr. Maclure communicated to the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, some observations on the geology of the United States; he has now somewhat enlarged and corrected his former memoir, increasing it at the same time with an attempt to apply geology to agriculture, in which he is highly commendable, as we have no doubt that his endeavours will be found practically useful, even by those who do not entertain any high idea of scientific researches. Every science is connected with the wants of mankind; and many sciences are indebted for their origin to those wants, which increase in proportion to civilization and refinement. Agriculture sprung from the inadequacy of nature's spontaneous supplies of food for a large population, and has but lately become a science; medicine sprung from the natural desire of relieving our pains and lengthening our lives; geometry from the necessity of ascertaining the extent and limits of our fields; geography from Vol. III.-No. I.

the importance of knowing the strength and resources of our own country, and the means and dispositions of our neighbours; astronomy from the exigences of shepherds and navigators; physics from the need of becoming acquainted with the phenomena which surround us, as well to avail ourselves of their co-operation, as to avert some of the dreadful disasters of which they are sometimes the cause; cosmony from the cravings of nature, which instigate us to learn what animals, plants, or minerals may be made subservient to our use, or afford us food, raiment, weapons, tools, &c.

All the divisions of knowledge to which we have given the names of arts or sciences, have, therefore, a common origin—our wants! a common object—our uses! a common view—our improvement! These selfish motives are those which govern the majority of mankind; but philosophy refines and elevates them. This common origin and object of the sciences has often led to the belief of their identity,

as if they were all concentrated in a universal science. This hypothesis cannot now have many adherents, since the different scientific pursuits have been so well illustrated and distinguished; yet every one must be aware of the intimate connexion which exists between all the sciences. For instance, botany and geometry, which appear so widely distinct, are yet so far connected that botany must borrow part of its language from geometry, and geometry some of its forms from

botany.

In a peculiarly improved stage and extended state of the sciences, the necessity of dividing them into minor sciences or branches begins to be felt, and such a division usually takes place shortly afterwards. It is to such a period that we are indebted for the new science of geology, or the knowledge of the solid part of the This science was for a long time blended with natural history, mineralogy, astronomy, cosmogony, mythology, history, to which it is more or less connected, without properly belonging to either; but it has in recent days been raised to the dignified station of a separate science, and can already number among its votaries such men as Cuvier, Werner, Hutton, Patrin, Lametherie, &c. in Europe, while in the United States many enlightened men do not disdain to cultivate it for the benefit of the present generation and of posterity.

Among the latter Mr. Maclure stands conspicuous for zeal, assiduity, perspicuity, liberality, utility, and an early attention to this important subject. It is not by the size of his work that we must judge of its value; but by its intrinsic merit. We believe that in the small number of pages of his volume, more essential facts and useful truths are disclosed than in many thick volumes of yore. We shall endeavour to collect such of them as our limits will allow, and such that a tolerable idea of the value of his observations may be formed; and the few imperfections which we may have occasion to notice, will but slightly invalidate

its real merit.

We agree altogether with our worthy author, when he states the fallacy of the numberless presumptive theories of the earth, which have so often been set up. While we have scarcely studied one-fourth part of the surface of the earth, and while the interior of our globe is totally unknown, all speculative theories must be considered as the novels of geology rather than its history. How many of them have even been founded upon a few local facts, which are belied by so

many different facts elsewhere! Mr. Maclure mentions that those animals whose bones have been found in northern climates, while they (or their congenerous species) are now found only in tropical climates, might have been migratory, as the wild Buffaloe of America is at this time;—he might have added, that most of them being different from the now living species, were probably (as the mammoth of Siberia was to a certainty) covered with a thick fur suitable to the climates they dwelt in. Yet to account for this simple fact, a supposition has been advanced, that the equator was once where the poles are now, and vice versa! If the mutation of the poles could only be supported by this false reasoning, every supposition of the kind would fall to the ground. Fire and water were, till lately, considered as the only agents acting over the earth,-now galvanism is allowed to have also its share; but electricity, magnetism, light, gases, air, frost, compression, and animal and vegetable agency, &c. have certainly also their share; wherefore every theory founded upon a simple or single agent, becomes an erroneous system.

Our author adopts Werner's classification of rocks; but he is not satisfied with his distinctive names of primitive and secondary; he might have added his transition, which denomination is certainly illusive. The fact is, that there are but four formations of rocks and earths, all of which, even granite, are stratified; they are the crystallized, the deposited, the volcanic, and the organic formations; the first originates in crystallizations, the second in depositions, the third in emissions, and the last in organic remains; if a fifth formation was to be added, it ought to be the agglomerated formation. The transition formation belongs to all the formations in various instances, and the alluvial to the deposited formations. All these formations often happen to be blended, which destroys altogether the theories of universal separate formations, since suppositions must yield to facts; and strata vary from the thickness of a sheet of paper to the immense thickness of several thousand feet, so far as they have been penetrated or seen.

The uniformity of the formations in the United states, and the regularity of their dispositions, strike every observer who has witnessed the disparity and irregularity which are exhibited in the formations of Europe Mr. Maclure traces an able parallel between the two continents, and describes next the outlines and limits

of the formations, rocks, mountains and strata of our continent, being the result of nearly thirty different excursions across their nucleus, which runs from northeast to southwest. He describes the whole in general results, disdaining minute investigation of insulated rocks and detached masses: yet if there are some of such, which may throw light upon the approximating formations, why should we neglect them altogether? We shall not follow him through his leading remarks, and his divisions; a single glance at his map will convey a better idea of his principles, the results of which are, that nearly all the New-England states, the northern part of New-York, and a broad stripe as far as Georgia, are primitive; that the alluvial formation extends from Long-Island to Louisiana, from the Atlantic to the granite up the Mississippi as far as the mouth of the Ohio; that the limestone, or secondary formation, extends all over the western states, as far as the lakes, including most of New-York, and that it is divided from the primitive by a transition region. A formation of sandstone exists in the primitive, in New-York, Maryland, Connecticut, &c.

Notwithstanding the able researches of our author, we cannot but regard his results, as well as those of Volney, as mere attempts towards the knowledge which he means to convey; we know of several instances in which the limits assigned to some formations are not altogether correct, nor can they ever be completely known, but after a series of long, minute local observations all over the United States; and even then, how are we to know when those limits are absolute or relative? We would advise observers to notice the angle of inclination of the strata at the place of their disappearance, whence a probable calculation may be made of their further depth and extent. A long period must elapse before we can acquire a complete knowledge of the soil we inhabit; we must sink wells and shafts, dig mines and coal-pits to great depths, ere we can assert which is the predominant formation in the strata we tread upon; but we must especially collect and describe all the organic remains of our soil, if we ever want to speculate with the smallest degree of probability, on the formation, respective age, and history of our strata. Mr. Maclure has altogether omitted these accessories or auxiliaries, which have received, with much propriety, the name of medals of nature: he says little or nothing of the numberless animal remains, shells, polyps, &c.

found all over our deposited and agglomerated soils, or alluvial, limestone, sandstone regions. He omits the alluvial found in Ohio and New-England, &c. The regions north of the lakes are a blank in his map; they are probably of primitive or granitic formation. The present great lakes of North-America, and those which have to a certainty existed elsewhere in ancient times, have had more influence on some parts of the soil than he is aware of. He has not mentioned any volcanic soils and rocks in the United States; yet there are certainly some, which he has classed, with the Wernerian school, among transition and secondary; but the trap, wake, coal, and clay formations, which are found in many parts, are here, as in Europe, evidently of volcanic, or emitted formation. Volcanoes do not always emit fire and lava, nor heap up mountains and craters; they often vomit water and mud, and, when they are covered by water, their smoke and ashes form, under the water, strata of various substances: such have been the ancient submarine volcanoes of Connecticut, New-York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Alabama,

The second plate of this work contains five transverse sections of the United States: 1. across lake Champlain and the White Hills; 2. from Plymouth to lake Erie; 3. from Egg-Harbour to Pittsburg; 4. from Cape Henry to Abingdon; 5. from Cape Fear to the Warm Springs. They give a tolerably good idea of the succession of formations; but we hope, that by leading each formation to the level of the sea, it was not meant to imply that they really reach it, else we should ask how was it known to be so?

We now proceed to the second part of this work, or the practical part thereof, wherein the author relates, with much propriety in the preface, how various are the practical results to be derived from the study of geology; it is by such a study that we are safely guided in our search for coal, salt, gypsum, limestone, sandstone, millstones, grindstones, whetstones, marble, clay, marl, slate, ores, &c. For instance, those who should search for coal in a primitive region, or under granite, would lose their time and money: those who mistake pyrites and mica for ores, find soon their delusion to their cost. It will teach you to pave turnpikes with quartz, which will wear two years, instead of limestone or any soft stone, which will not last three months. When clay contains too much calcarious matter, it cannot make good bricks, and when limestone contains too much argillaceous matter, it cannot make lime.

The theory of the decomposition of rocks is treated with great ability and perspicuity; it is worth while for every enlightened agriculturalist to become acquainted with it: the results are, that the best seils for agricultural purposes are those proceeding from the decomposition of wake, limestone, lava, tuffa, &c. that the worst are those resulting from clay, salt, sand, quartz, &c. that alluvial and transition formations partake of such formations as they have been washed from; that vegetable mould is the common manure of nature, that gypsum is the next, marl and clay, of sand, and vice versa, &c.

In the last chapter Mr. Maclure enters at length into an investigation of the probable effects which the decomposition of rocks may have on the nature and fertility of the soils of the different states of North-America, when such soils are in their pristine state, since, when covered with vegetable and animal manure or mould, their fertility lasts as long as such mould remains. In result it appears that Pennsylvania and New-York possess the greatest quantity of good lands among the Atlantic states, while all the western states enjoy an equal fertility, being all situated in the limestone formation. All the alluvial region fronting the ocean appears to possess a peculiar character, the soil being almost every where light, dry and sandy, or swampy; this soil, when mixed with marl, which is generally found under it, forms a good cultivable ground. It is probable that cotton, the staple produce of this region south of the Chesapeake, will, at a future period, be found suitable to the whole region, and cultivable as far north as Long-Island, and on those Hempstead plains, now thought almost unfit for cultivation, as were formerly thought the pine barrens of South-Carolina.

Mr. Maclure indulges sometimes in digressions in which some happy thoughts are discernible: his great division of the states, into states east and west of the Alleghany, is quite natural, and the probable consequences of their respective features are truly delineated. Happily the Atlantic states are divided also naturally in three districts; New-England states,

east of the Hudson and lake Champlain; middle states, whose territories extend west of the mountains or natural limit; and southern states, where slavery prevails; while the western states will soon be divided in three natural districts,—north of the Ohio, south of the Ohio, and west of the Mississippi, whose features and interests will also assume their own peculiarities, the presumable result of which will be a happy balance of indivisible interests.

We wish that a hint of Mr. Maclure's might meet the eyes of some of those who direct among us the education of youth. He insinuates that we may reasonably hope that, ere long, some portion of time will be appropriated, in our colleges and universities, to studies of evident utility, and that the knowledge of substances, their properties and their uses, will be permitted, in some degree, to encroach on the study of mere words, or the smattering of dead languages. His hopes begin to be partly realized, and the utility of the study of our soil, our waters, our minerals, our fossils, our plants, our animals, &c. is becoming daily more evident; let us hope that these studies will soon be taught every where, together, at least, with those of a less permanent and general utility. We shall conclude in the words of this author,-" The earth is every day moulding down into a form more capable of producing and increasing vegetable matter, the food of animals, and consequently progressing towards a state of amelioration and accumulation of those materials, of which the moderate and rational enjoyment constitutes great part of our comfort and happiness. On the surface of such an extensive and perpetual progression, let us hope that mankind will not, nay, cannot, remain stationary."

These remarks bear evidence that our worthy author is gifted with a philanthropic and philosophical mind. The style and the details of his work bear the stamp of the same modest, unassuming, and plain philosophy, and give the author a title to the highest reward of a good citizen, the gratitude of his countrymen; and should his labours be rewarded with the praise that greeted his predecessor Volney, we doubt not he will feel his anticipations fully realized.

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WHETHER civil society derived its origin from any express compact, or not, its existence is based upon those principles which would have constituted the ground-work of a voluntary and formal confederation. Man is, undoubtedly, gregarious from instinct; and, associations were probably first entered into, upon the mere impulses of nature, without a computation, or even an apprehension, of the advantages to which such associations might tend, and in which, in fact, they have resulted. But though reason was not consulted in the preliminary inter-course, by means of which the human species has been multiplied and perpetuated, and out of which the complicated relations of life have grown ;-it requires, nevertheless, the perfection of reason, to provide for the well being of an extended community. To ascertain the rights and duties of the individuals composing the body politic, towards each other and towards the state-and to contrive a mode rigidly to enforce these, and strictly to vindicate those-is at once the most important purpose of morality, and the most arduous effort of intellect. But it is a "consummation," not more "devoutly to be wished," than unlikely to be attained. Simply to devise the best means of protecting private interests and of promoting the public good, is in itself a stupendous task-but when, in addition to the intrinsic difficulties of the subject, we take into view the adventitious obstacles, which the ignorance, and prejudice, and jealousy of the many throw in the way of the lawgiver, and the subtility with which his plainest enactments are evaded, we shall be-gin to have some notion of the hopelessness of his toil. If even when God, condescended to give written statutes to the Jews, and made his own selection of persons to administer his laws, the current of justice was still liable to be polluted, and its great ends were not unfrequently defeated, we may well despair of witnessing, in this world, a perfect dispensation. Yet though we cannot prevent wrong, we may in some measure, mitigate it—and though we cannot eradicate evil, we can, at least, abstain from augmenting it.

It is a matter of some doubt, whether the attempt to reduce all the transactions and commerce between men to fixed rules, has not, on the whole, wrought more mischief than it has mended-whether the law has not been oftener used as a buckler to shield the wicked, than as a sword to avenge the injured. The fondness of mankind for system leads them into continual absurdities. The merits of every case rest upon the circumstances of that case. Without knowing these circumstances, the law undertakes to class prospectively, from certain indicia, which are, perhaps, purely accidental, cases which may be essentially different. Would it not be as safe to entrust an enlightened tribunal with the power of meting out equity, from its convictions of right, on the investigation of evidence, as to put every thing at risk, upon a jump-in-thedark of the law? Moral obligation, the law can neither create nor change. It does not pretend to do either. It only essays to apply certain abstract principles to all cases which may occur of a certain description, but which cases, though they may have some quality in common, may still be dissimilar in the most important particulars. Besides a thousand combinations may arise, which the law cannot foresee, and, of course, cannot embrace. But the code of equity not only furnishes the precise remedy for a present grievance, but affords specific redress for every wrong which may be sustained. These speculations are not novel—though, possibly, they deserve more consideration than has been bestowed upon them.

But to come to the subject in hand. The social compact, however formed or ratified, is a beneficial contract:—and the good of the whole is the gist of the bond of union. Men consorted together for their mutual advantage. Whether fear or affection incited them, protection in their persons and possessions was an indispensible stipulation in their alliance. Society undertook to afford this protection, and from the earliest records of history, has been continually occupied in endcavouring to fulfil its engagement.

It is the interest of society to conserve the rights of its constituents—it is the interest of individuals to obey the ordinances of society. No matter how profligate the community, it must recognize truth, and must plight itself to observe justice. A band of robbers can cement itself only by stone contains too much argillaceous matter, it cannot make lime.

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the ties of virtue—a set of sharpers must, among themselves, prohibit cheating. We may, therefore, on all general questions, presume a free community to act honestly, according to the best of its understanding. But superiority of natural endowments in the rudest state of society, and the accumulation of wealth at a more advanced period, give to individuals an as-cendency over their fellows. It is always the aim of those who have attained an elevacion to retain it, and the influence which their present consideration confers, is employed to give stability to their power. Rule and distinction, in process of time, become hereditary; and inequality of condition gives birth to inequality of rights. A system of aggression thus commenced, is usually pursued, till one part of society is brought into entire subjection to another. If servitude be rendered too galling, the oppressed revolt, and some portion of liberty is redeemed. Having discovered their strength, by preserving a concert in their measures, the governed are able to check and counterbalance the usurpation of their governors; and, ultimately, to repulse their encroachments. In this strife, opposite forces nearly counteract each other, and the machine of society is not drawn widely out of the true line of its direction. But water may be cooled below the freezing point without congealing,-and tyranny may degrade its victims below the dignity of men, without driving them to desperation. exist governments in which the welfare of the subject is never weighed against the wishes of the sovereign, and where the nation is regarded but as the pediment of the throne. Such governments are supported by force,—and can be supported, even in this way, only over a stupid and ignorant people. But in more enlightened countries, where public opinion is, in some degree, respected and consulted, the rich have still an undue influence over the laws, both in their enaction, and in their administration. It is only in a republic, where every office is elective, and where every citizen possesses the elective franchise, that we can expect to find the good of the whole the paramount principle of legislation.

A republican government, however, like every other government, bears hardest upon the lower classes. In a commonwealth, the people are, indeed, the nominal sovereigns, but in most cases, they are incapable of exercising the actual sovereignty. Unfitted or afraid to think for themselves, they act as they are acted upon; and unfortunately, those who commu-

nicate the impulse to the public mind, are not always unbiassed by sinister interests. The multitude is ferocious only when provoked, and formidable only when opposed. Credulous and fond of being caressed, it is ever too ready to become the dupe of the designing; and if, soothed by their meretricious blandishments, it suffers itself to be lulled in the lap of security, it is certain to be shorn of its strength, and to be delivered bound, into the hands of the Philistines.

Happily a wakeful jealousy prevails in this country, among the majority of the people, in regard to any invasion of their imprescriptible rights, which will render abortive every open attempt to infringe The citizens of the United States will owe their exemption from the common fate of nations, to their superior moral and intellectual cultivation. know and they appreciate their immunities, and they will neither barter nor aban-They are aware that the essence of freedom consists, not in the pageant of national independence, but in the actual enjoyment of civil liberty—and no arts, and no cajolery, will ever extort from them the surrender of that boon, without which patriotism is but a phantom, and loyalty ceases to be a virtue.

It is a maxim of the English law, that the king can do no wrong. In republics, this royal prerogative may be predicated of the sovereign people. A nation of freemen cannot trammel itself with any bonds inconsistent with freedom. It can revoke, at pleasure, any concession which operates to its detriment. The state is obliged to consult the good of all its subjects, and if it have made a grant to some which prejudices others, it is its duty, as well as its right, to annul it. In any community every privilege or exemption is so much substracted from the common stock, and is not only directly, but indirectly oppressive to those from whom the grace proceeds-it not only augments their proportion of ordinary burthens, but by creating obnoxious distinctions and contrariant interests, it creates new burthens to be

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The moral obligations of communities and of individuals are the same. Those rights which individuals could not surrender to the state, the state is not empowered to compromit. No man has a right to dispose of his life or his liberty, for no equivalent can be offered for either. Criminals are amenable, in a state of nature, to the individual who suffers by their crimes, in a state of civilization to the society which is injured in the persons of

its members. Punishments are proportioned to offences; and are intended to reform by infliction, or to deter by example. Some offences are justly punished by imprisonment,—some, possibly, are punishable with death. In the savage state the injured invidual avenges his own wrong,-in the social state the magistrates enforce the sanctions of the law against those who contravene it. Life or liberty may, therefore, become forfeited by the commission of crime,—and in this way only. But the essence of crime is its purposed and premeditated malice. Poverty, though an evil, can hardly be imagined to be either malicious or voluntary -since it acts of itself in the nature of a punishment to those who incur it. It is, then, no crime to be poor. Imprisonment, therefore, or any other penance for poverty is unjust.

It may be said, however, that debts are voluntarily assumed, and grow out of benefits conferred—and that if a man undertakes to pay what he is unable to pay, he ought to suffer the consequences of his default. If he be made liable to imprisonment for failure in complying with his contracts, the fear of imprisonment will operate as a salutary stimulus to his exertions; -and to give efficacy to the motive, it must be rigidly enforced in cases of delinquency. Besides it is necessary to the preservation of credit that men should give the greatest security in their power for the performance of their promises,-and if their liberty be what they prize most, let them pledge that, as the surest guarranty of their honesty.

But no one can pledge that of which he has not the controul. Men are not the masters of their lives and liberties, to dispose of them at their option. They are moral agents, and are bound to preserve both the one and the other, as the absolute and unalienable gifts of the Deity, to be devoted to the legitimate ends of rational being. The only gage they can offer, for the return of values received, is, present possessions or prospects, skill in business, and integrity of character. To these alone should the creditor look, as the foundations of his confidence and the sources of his reimbursement. To the property of debtors recourse should be directly had, on the first occasion of delay or denial of payment of just dues,-and fairness of dealing should be compelled by the severest penalties for malversation. Whether the debtor's skill or talent should be held in requisition after the fact of his insolvency is ascertained, or, in other words, whether the future acquisitions of an insolvent, after his failure and the complete surrender of his property, should be liable for his deficiencies, though not doubtful as a matter of equity, is questionable as a measure of expedience. He who cannot calculate on the enjoyment of his earnings will rarely labour with diligence; and one ever so desirous of redeeming his reputation and his losses, if exposed to be arrested in his career, the moment he acquires a sensible motion, must despair of reaching the goal of his generous ambition.

Temporary coercion of personal liber-ty, as the only effectual means of constraining the debtor to abide the judgment of the law, in the first instance, and of compelling him to make a disclosure of his property, subsequently, the laws of every civilized community do, indeed, allow. So salutary a restraint, no friend of good morals will wish to remove. We do not perceive that the writers, whose essays we have under consideration, how much soever at variance on other points, differ in their sentiments in this respect. Both admit the necessity of the existence of a power to imprison debtors, who omit or refuse to pay their just debts, till some satisfaction be made—either by payment, or by proof of inability to pay. They dissent as to the proper residence of this power, and as to its mode of application. Cautus is in favour of leaving it to be exercised at the discretion of the creditor,-Howard would have the propriety of commitment, or of the requisition of bail, to be the subject of judicial inquiry. Cautus considers the provision for discharging insolvents, taken in execution after final judgment, from confinement, after a detention of fourteen days, or of three months, on proof of their insolvency, as a seasonable, and an adequate relief,-Howard contends that no man should be confined on mesne process, till the justness of the plaintiff's claim be shown. Cautus regards the present system of legal proceedings, in the state of New-York, though somewhat defective, as nearly as lenient and fair as legal proceedings can be rendered,-Howard considers them most unequal, despotic, and pernicious. The sympathies of Cautus are absorbed in the disappointment of the creditor,-the commiseration of Howard is awakened only by the sufferings of the incarcerated debtor. The conviction left upon our mind, from the mature consideration of the arguments adduced, in support of the opposite positions of the two disputants, is, that under the prevailing practice of the laws of the state of New-York, the cases of

honest creditors and of honest debtors are

nearly equally pitiable.

It is not our intention to go into the detail of the practice of the courts in this state, which would be as disgusting to our readers, as fatiguing to ourselves. bare statement of the fact, that all the uncouth, arbitrary, and circumlocutory forms of the English law proceedings are, with us, pertinaciously pursued, will convey to the apprehension of every one who has any acquaintance with the subject,and we envy him who has not,-an appalling idea of the Odyssean wanderings of the suitors of justice. It is not less a subject of regret than of amazement, that amiable men are to be found, who are sane too, and sensible, on every other topic, who yet can admire and applaud a system so revolting to common sense, as the clumsy chicanery which we have adopted from the courts of Westminster-Hall. It is mortifying and astonishing that persons of good feelings and good capacity, can so silence their consciences, and so pervert their understandings, as not merely to be content with, but to approve, the frivolous ambages, and contemptible fictions of our judicial processes.

The Common Law had its origin in a state of things so different from that with which we are conversant, that it is in a great degree inapplicable to it; -and the artificial reasons, which are deduced from exploded institutions, are often directly repugnant to the plainest dictates of truth and justice. The capricious decisions of the law, however, unjust as they may be, are trifling evils in comparison with the procrastination of its judgment. A greater damage is often sustained in obtaining justice, than would have been suffered in forbearing to seek it. So complex has the practice of the courts become, and so inevitable the delay in obtaining legal redress, that the boasted concessions of magna carta, have been virtually frittered away. Nulli negabimus, nulli vendemus, aut differemus, justitiam vel rectum, is the language of this venerable charter; but, alas, it is daily contradicted in every tribunal in our country. No one who has paid the enormous fees on a protracted suit will doubt that justice is both delayed and sold—and there is many a man, who has been obliged by the failure of his pecuniary means to abandon a good cause, that will be bold enough to assert that it is sometimes denied. Shakespeare, who had had some experience of the ills of life, makes " the law's delay, and insolence of office," the climax of all the provocatives to suicide. A law-suit is an

affliction with which even the patience of Job was not tried, and against which it

might not have been proof.

A radical reform in our jurisprudence is loudly called for. It is vain to attempt to botch all the rents in the threadbare system of the common law, and idle to expect uniformity or coherence in a piece of patchwork. The honour of our country, and the interest of every class of citizens, require an entire new modelling of the civil code of our laws. We have, among us, talents adequate to the task-we only lack boldness to commence the enterprise. It is not our office to devise a new system, nor do we assume to be competent to it. To point out existing inconveniences is, however, in some measure to indicate their remedies. Every one is, now, liable to be arrested at the suit of any one, and held to bail in any amount, or to be committed to prison for not producing satisfactory bail. There is, to be sure, a provision of law that no man shall be required to give bail in an exorbitant sum, and an action may be maintained against any person who commences a vexatious suit;—but in these cases a positive wrong must be suffered in the first place, to give a claim for an eventual and doubtful redress. should be the object of laws to prevent wrongs, rather than to punish them. At any rate, to punish the accused without an inquiry into their guilt, is a precipitate measure, and one for which no subsequent atonement can make amends. Again, if a man be sued by one to whom he is indebted, for an amount beyond that in which he is indebted, it is so long before a trial can be obtained, and the expenses of litigation are so great, that he is not benefitted by contesting a claim, for which there is any foundation, though he should prove the extent of the claim to be unfounded. Indeed, if a man be sued in the Supreme Court, and be ready to acknowledge his indebtedness, it is doubted whether he would be permitted to confess judgment; and as an appearance must be entered at the first term, nearly a year may elapse before he can make default; -then, before judgment can be entered up, a dilatory process ensues; and after this the creditor has ninety days in which to sue out execution. If, after all, the debtor be taken and committed in execution, a considerable time may transpire before he is allowed to prove his insolvency, and when this fact is proved, and when he has been discharged as an insolvent, his person is still liable to arrest on any other demand, even of the

same creditors. His future property, too, is subject to distrainment on the very judgment under which he has been discharged. Thus far the law seems wholly levelled against debtors. But we shalt find that it is hardly less inimical to creditors. A poor debtor may, indeed, be made the victim of oppression, but a rich one cannot be compelled to do justice. Property, whether real or personal, cannot be attached on mesne process, and he who has any considerable amount of either, can easily obtain sureties for his appearance at Court, or for his continuance on the jail limits. It is true, that on execution any visible property may be seized in satisfaction of the judgment, but by the delays of the law, a sufficient interval is afforded either to squander assets, or to convert them into money or choses in action, which are held not to be attachable. opulent debtor may thus live at his ease, with a slight sacrifice of his latitude of excursion, and set all his creditors at defiance. Moreover, by a judicious appli-cation of his funds, he can easily produce a host of nominal creditors who will sign off, and entitle him to a complete release, not only from jail, but from every pecuniary claim that exists against him.

A radical reform in our jurisprudence is the only effectual remedy for the manifold evils with which the land is afflicted under colour of law. It is time that a free and thinking, and educated people, had loosed its understanding from the fetters which were forged, in the days of ignorance, for the thraldom of vassals. time that veteran error were stripped of its integuments, that absurdity were dragged from the subterfuge of legal principle, and that the cloak of practice were lifted from the shoulders of extortion and chi-It is time, in short, that the swaddling clothes of the law were laid aside, and that truth were suffered to walk forth, if not in her naked dignity, at least in decent robes. The scant and jagged pattern of the common law has, indeed, been so often pieced and dearned by the diligent housewifery of the bench and the legislature, that the original fabric is not always to be detected, but it can never be rendered either convenient or comely for the present stature of society. What a disgrace to the state is the boast, which we have heard from some members of the bar-that to acquire an acquaintance (knowledge it does not deserve to be called,) with the practice of the courts, is, in New-York, the most arduous part of the study of the profession; -in other words, that it is less difficult fully to understand

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even the legal merits of a cause, than to learn how to bring it under the cognizance of a competent judge. If this be true, what a waste of mind must such a prodigious accumulation of rubbish in the threshold of the temple of justice, annually occasion? and what a gain of time and talent would it be to the community, if any direct and ample avenue could be opened to those portals, which should ever be both unbarred and accessible?

It is worth while to calculate the extent of the pecuniary saving that would result from simplifying our code, and substituting rational method for the idle and arbitrary forms of judicial proceedings. The labour to be performed would be so much diminished, that half the number of judges and lawyers, that are at present engaged in our Courts, would be sufficient for the despatch of business in half the time that is now consumed in the same operation. A portion of those gentlemen of the profession who would be thrown out of employment, by such an abridgement of legal labour, might be usefully occupied in Courts "of the first instance," whose province it should be to grant writs, on due application, against the person or property of debtors, in certain cases, and to regulate the nature and extent of the security to be given by defendants to abide final judgment in the superior Courts,and in cases where a debtor should acknowledge the debt, to receive his confession and the surrender of his property for the benefit of all his creditors, and to appoint an assignee to take charge of his effects, and finally, on proper investigation, to grant him, in its discretion, a complete discharge. Thus would every man's person and property be in the custody of the law; and the discretionary power of creditors being taken away, the number of suits would be very much lessened,-by, which means, another gain of time to the community would accrue.

It may seem somewhat inconsistent with the eulogium which we have passed upon the spirit and intelligence of our countrymen, that such laws, and such a practice, as, we have described, should be tolerated for a moment among us. But it is only of late that the magnitude of the evil has been felt and comprehended,-and already is the attention of the country roused, and even now are its energies in action, to remove present ills, and to avert impending dangers. In more prosperous days, instances of insolvency were comparatively few, and misfortune was more easily retrieved. Banks, too, as yet were not, those laboratories of ruin had not com-

menced the work of destruction; and the relentless rapacity of impersonal corporations was unknown and unapprehended. But, as embarrassments and banks have spread, the true character of our laws has heen more clearly developed. It was left for corporations, without soul, without bowels, without any of the yearnings of nature, to evince the atrocity of which the laws are capable. The scales have at length fallen from the eyes of the people, -they have awakened from their sluggishness; and when they shall come correctly to estimate the deleterious influence and tendency of the privileged combinations, to which they have lent their sanction, they will resume the rights with which they have so improvidently parted, and rescind the powers which they have so injudiciously bestowed. They will annihilate, with a breath, the bubbles which their breath has inflated. A bill, which goes far to check enormities, of which we have seen but the beginnings, has just passed one branch of the legislature of this state. It is entitled, " An Act to abolish Imprisonment for Debt, and to pre-vent Frauds against Creditors." We have seen the original draught of it, which is susceptible of material amendments. It has, we understand, been considerably amended. We hope that some definite provision may be introduced into it, for the attachment of the shares of the capital stock of any incorporated company, and the dividends due thereon, held by any debtor at the time of the commencement of any suit against him, or transferred to him whilst any judgment against him remains unsatisfied. are many points in which the draught appears to us to be defective, but as we know not what shape the bill has since taken, nor what improvements it may receive, we shall defer our comments upon it, until its fate is decided. That it will be wholly rejected, we can hardly believe. Cheated creditors and persecuted debtors are equally clamorous for some relief, against the unequal operation of existing laws.

We are fearful that a class of our readers will regard the topic which we have offered to their consideration as a dry and appromising one.—we shall not tempt their patience by dwelling on it longer. In the

relation either of debtor or creditor, however, almost every individual, of the age of legal discretion, stands,-and to appreciate the responsibilities which such relation involves, is of some importance. Even those who are devoid of personal concern, feel an interest in those things which concern their friends, and which affect the reputation and prosperity of their country. We recommend, to those with whom such reflections have weight, the candid perusal of both the essays, the titles of which are prefixed to this article. They should be read in connexion, as they will serve to temper and to correct each other. We would also recommend to those, who have never fancied to themselves the sufferings of an unfortunate insolvent, torn from his family in the hour of despondence, and incarcerated in the common cell of the wretched and the base, cut off from the exercise of his faculties, and the enjoyment of the poorest bounties of nature, degraded in his own estimation, and disgraced in public opinion-to those who have never entered into the feelings of such a one, we repeat, we would recommend the perusal of another series of essays written under the signature of "Howard"in 1811, in the New-York Columbian, and afterwards collected in a pamphlet. In these essays are some pathetic details which will touch the sensibilities even of the most obtuse; and those who would blame the enthusiasm with which the writer is animated, must, at least, acknowledge it to be amiable. A zeal for the liberty of the citizen may, indeed, be carried to excess, but we do not think that this is a frequent fault, though certainly a very venial one. If the habits and dispositions of our people be democratic, they are effectually counteracted by the tendency of institutions which every day is consolidat-We have more cause to dread, that the debasing influence of commercial cupidity will deaden the pulses of national pride and liberal sentiment, than that the insurgency of public opinion will arrest the current of commercial enterprise. We should be sorry to see liberty and property brought into competition, -we should despair of the commonwealth, if an unworthy passion for the latter should ever be suffered to preponderate the love, and the reverence, due to the former.

ART. 5. Essay on the Theory of the Earth, by M. Cuvier, Perpetual Secretary of the French Institute, Professor and Administrator of the Museum of Natural History, &c.—With Mineralogical Notes, and an Account of Cuvier's Geological Discoveries, by Professor Jameson.—To which are now added, Observations on the Geology of North-America, illustrated by the Description of various Organic Remains, found in that part of the World, by Samuel L. Mitchill, Botan. Mineral. et Zoolog. in Univers. Nov. Eborac. Prof. &c. &c. &vo. pp. 248. New-York. Kirk & Mercein. 1818.

ANY great and learned men have occupied their time, and bestowed much of their attention in investigating the history of the terraqueous globe. They have endeavoured to comprise the results of their inquiries in a theory of the earth. Such a theory supposes a system supported by a series of facts relative to the changes and origin of the terraqueous Mineralogy has heretofore almost exclusively furnished data, upon which theories of the earth have been established; but in the one under consideration, similar results have followed from a view of the fossil organic remains, which are so abundantly scattered over the surface of the earth, and imbodied in the solid strata far beneath the surface. The work before us contains an admirable compendium of the labours and researches of an individual, who has been, for many years past, vigorously engaged, unlocking the depositories of nature where the relics of former times are interred. these, after a scrutinizing examination and mature deliberation, he has established a system, which, for simplicity and elegance of structure, outshines all that have preceded it. Hitherto, in the investigations on the subject of geology, extraneous fossils, or petrifactions, have not received the attention which their importance demands. Hence, Cuvier, " as an antiquary of a new order," entices his readers over paths but little explored, and leads them among the tombs to examine the remains of organic beings "hitherto almost uniformly neglected." In systems of mineralogy and geology, petrifactions have occupied a very small space, and wherever they have been noticed, they have appeared like an appendix, but partially connected with the subject, and placed there as objects of inexplicable curiosity. So, in cabinets of mineralogy, it was difficult to arrange them in any system, and accordingly they were excluded, or laid by, for future consideration. But now, the light of an extraordinary genius shines in the dark recesses of nature, and gives to extraneous fossils a consideration and rank in the history of the terraqueous globe, to which they have never before

been raised. He takes hold of the subject in a masterly manner, and conducts his readers into a new region of thought, and gently carries them with him along the lapse of ages, without fatigue and without complaint. We shall feel highly gratified, if, in the review we have undertaken of this celebrated work, we can only interest our readers sufficiently to induce them to procure and peruse the book, which we shall proceed more particularly to notice.

The edition before us, as lately issued from the press of Kirk & Mercein, in New-York, contains three parts; and the whole is illustrated by eight plates of engravings of the fossil remains of quadrupeds, and other organic beings, found in

various districts of the globe.

The first part contains the essay of M. Cuvier on the theory of the earth, which is introductory to his great work This essay on fossil organic remains. has been translated by professor Jameson, of Edinburgh, from the original French into English, and contains the substance of his work, being the reasoning and deduction, resulting from the consideration of the whole subject matter. This is contained in 183 pages. The second part contains mineralogical notes, and an account of Cuvier's geological discoveries, by professor Robert Jameson, intended to illustrate the text of the essay: notes occupy 134 pages; and the remaining 111 pages are supplied by Dr. Mitchill. To the translation and edition of professor Jameson, Dr. Mitchill has added (what forms the third part of the work before us) "Observations on the Geology of North America," illustrated by the description of various organic remains found in that part of the world. Thus we have, imbodied in a few octavo pages, the labours of three men, great in the field of science, of different nations and of different languages, but uniting, freely uniting, without envy or jealousy, to explore the dark recesses of nature, and unfold the ways of God to man. Such a union of sentiment and action, in men of extensive acquirements and scientific erudition, is not often to be met with, and where their

labours promote the general welfare, we should not be backward in bestowing that liberal encomium which their works have merited. It must be a great source of satisfaction and pleasure to the philosophic world, to see France, England, and America engaged in extending and illustrating the physical sciences, by the labours of men, who are foremost in these departments in their respective countries. It is with great diffidence that we undertake to examine the merits of their respective works. Their inquiries into the relics of animated beings, which once moved upon the surface of the earth, but are now extinct, lead us to a true and correct history of our globe, as explained in the preliminary observations (p. 27) of Cuvier himself.

"The ancient history of the globe, which is the ultimate object of all these researches, is also, of itself, one of the most curious objects that can engage the attention of enlightened men: and if they take any interest in examining, in the infancy of our species, the almost obliterated traces of so many nations that have become extinct, they will doubtless take a similar interest in collecting, amidst the darkness which covers the infancy of the globe, the traces of those revolutions which took place anterior to the existence of all nations.

"We admire the power by which the human mind has measured the motions of globes, which nature seemed to have concealed for ever from our view. Genius and science have burst the limits of space, and a few observations, explained by just reasoning, have unveiled the mechanism of the universe. Would it not also be glorious for man to burst the limits of time, and by a few observations, to ascertain the history of this world, and the series of events which preceded the birth of the human race."

Cuvier after stating, in the plan of his essay, that he will describe the whole of the results at which the theory of the earth seems to him to have arrived, preceeds, in the third section, to speak of the first appearance of the earth. The inviting prospects of verdant plains and cultivated fields, of gently flowing streams, and fertile valleys, together with cities, towns, and villages, and their attendant population, would lead the superficial observer to imagine that the solid materials of the earth were unchangeable and had so remained from the beginning; but he is soon convinced to the contrary, when he digs beneath the surface, ascends the hills, observes the declivities of mountains, or examines the defiles of descending torrents, where he can see something of the internal structure of the globe. We thus

observe the "first proofs of revolutions" on its surface.

"The lowest and most level parts of the earth, when penetrated to a very great depth, exhibit nothing but horizontal strata, composed of various substances, and containing almost all of them innumerable marine productions. Similar strata, with the same kind of productions, compose the hills even to a great height. Sometimes the shells are so numerous as to constitute the entire body of the stratum. They are almost every where in such a perfect state of preservation, that even the smallest of them retain their most delicate parts, their sharpest ridges, and their finest and tenderest processes. They are found in elevations far above the level of evey part of the ocean, and in places to which the sea could not be conveyed by any existing cause. They are not only enclosed in loose sand, but are often incrusted and penetrated on all sides by the hardest stones. Every part of the earth, every hemisphere, every continent, every island of any size, exhibits the same phenomenon. We are therefore forcibly led to believe, not only that the sea has at one period or another covered all our plains, but that it must have remained there for a long time, and in a state of tranquillity; which circumstance was necessary for the formation of deposits so extensive, so thick, in part so solid, and containing exuviæ so perfectly preserved.

"The time is past for ignorance to assert that these remains of organized bodies are mere lusus natura,-productions generated in the womb of the earth by its own creative powers. A nice and scrupulous comparison of their forms, of their contexture, and frequently even of their composition, cannot detect the slightest difference between these shells and the shells which still inhabit the They have therefore once lived in the sea, and been deposited by it; the sea consequently must have rested in the places where the deposition has taken place. Hence it is evident the basin or reservoir containing the sea has undergone some change, at least, either in extent, or in situation, or in both. Such is the result of the very first search, and of the most superficial examination.

"The traces of revolutions become still more apparent and decisive when we ascend a little higher, and approach nearer to the foot of the great chains of mountains. There are still found many beds of shells; some of these are even larger and more solid; the shells are quite as numerous and as entirely preserved; but they are not of the same species with those which were found in the less elevated regions. The strata which contain them are not so generally horizontal: they have various degrees of inclination, and are sometimes situated vertically. While in the plains and low hills it was necessary to dig deep in order to detect the succession of the strata, here we perceive them by means of the valleys which time or violence has produced, and which disclose their edges to the eye of the observer. At the bottom of these declivities, huge masses of their debris are collected, and form round hills, the height of which is augmented by the operation of

every thaw and of every storm.

"These inclined or vertical strata, which form the ridges of the secondary mountains, do not rest on the horizontal strata of the hills which are situated at their base, and serve as their first steps; but, on the contrary, are situated underneath them. The latter are placed upon the declivities of the former. When we dig through the horizontal strata, in the neighbourhood of the inclined strata, the inclined strata are invariably found below. Nay, sometimes, when the inclined strata are not too much elevated, their summit is surmounted by horizontal The inclined strata are therefore more ancient than the horizontal strata. And as they must necessarily have been formed in a horizontal position, they have been subsequently shifted into their inclined or vertical position, and that too before the horizontal strata were placed above them.

"Thus the sea, previous to the formation of the horizontal strata, had formed others, which, by some means, have been broken, lifted up, and overturned in a thousand ways. There had therefore been also at least one change in the basin of that sea which preceded ours: it had also experienced at least one re volution; and as several of these inclined strata which it had formed first, are elevated above the level of the horizontal strata which have succeeded and which surround them, this revolution, while it gave them their present inclination, had also caused them to project above the level of the sea, so as to form islands, or at least rocks and inequalities; and this must have happened whether one of their edges was lifted up above the water, or the depression of the opposite edge caused the water to subside. This is the second result, not less obvious, nor less clearly demonstrated, than the first, to every one who will take the trouble of studying carefully the remains by which it is illustrated and proved."

The proofs of revolutions on the surface of the globe, besides what are here mentioned, are many, and have been observed in various parts of the earth, collected and recorded in the different works on geology. The investigations on this subject have been principally made in Europe and Asia. America has of late presented abundant additional facts in proof of such revolutions. Among the foreigners who have collected them, may be mentioned Volney, Humboldt, and M'Clure, as the most conspicuous. Many of our own citizens have occasionally written on these subjects, and their essays are to be found in the several periodical journals of the country. The Medical Repository of New-York,—Dr. Bruce's Mineralogical Journal,—The Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, and others, not now at hand for more particular reference, may be consulted. But the observations added to Jameson's edition of Cuvier, by Dr. Mitchill, afford the most abundant proofs of such revolutions in North America. They are stated by Cuvier, in the 5th and 6th sections of his Essay, to have been numerous and sudden, and the geology of North America is not wanting in proofs on these points; but we reserve our remarks in order that we may be more particular when noticing that part of the work.

The "proofs of the occurrence of revolutions before the existence of living beings," are contained in the seventh section of the essay, in which our author

writes as follows.

" As we ascend to higher points of elevation, and advance towards the lofty summits of the mountains, the remains of marine animals, that multitude of shells we have spoken of, begin very soon to grow rare, and at length disappear altogether. We arrive at strata of a different nature, which contain no vestige at all of living creatures. Nevertheless, their crystallization, and even the nature of their strata, show that they also have been formed in a fluid; their inclined position and their slopes show that they also have been moved and overturned; the oblique manner in which they sink under the shelly strata, shows that they have been formed before these; and the height to which their bare and rugged tops are elevated above all the shelly strata, shows that their summits have never again been covered by the sea since they were raised up out of its bosom.

"Such are those primitive or primordial mountains which traverse our continents in various directions, rising above the clouds, separating the basins of the rivers from one another, serving, by means of their eternal snows, as reservoirs for feeding the springs, and forming, in some measure, the skeleton, or, as it were, the rough frame-work of the earth.

"The sharp peaks and rugged indentations which mark their summits, and strike the eye at a great distance, are so many proofs of the violent manner in which they have been elevated. Their appearance in this respect is very different from that of the rounded mountains and the hills with flat surfaces, whose recently formed masses have always remained in the situation in which they were quietly deposited by the sea which last covered them.

"These proofs become more obvious as we approach. The valleys have no longer those gently sloping sides, or those alternately salient and re-entrant angles opposite to one another, which seem to indicate the

beds of ancient streams. They widen and contract without any general rule; their waters sometimes expand into lakes, and sometimes descend in torrents; and here and there the rocks, suddenly approaching from each side, form transverse dikes, over which the waters fall into cataracts. The shattered strata of these valleys expose their edges on one side, and present on the other side large portions of their surface lying obliquely; they do not correspond in height, but those which on one side form the summit of the declivity, often dip so deep on the other as to be altogether concealed."

These proofs also correspond with the opinions entertained by Mr. Kirwan. He states that no masses, or strata, containing shells, or other petrified organic remains, are found higher than 8500 or 9000 feet above the present level of the sea.\* Hence the earth, since the creation of animated beings, was covered with water to that level, and consequently the revolutions which appear to have taken place in the higher mountains were produced at a period anterior to the existence of ani-Cuvier does not go into detail en this subject, but refers for proofs more at large to Pallas, Saussure, Deluc, and others, and concludes the section thus:

" Hence, it is impossible to deny, that the waters of the sea have formerly, and for a long time, covered those masses of matter which now constitute our highest mountains; and farther, that these waters, during a long time, did not support any living bodies. Thus, it has not been only since the commencement of animal life that these aumerous changes and revolutions have taken place in the constitution of the external covering of our globe: for the masses formed previous to that event have suffered changes, as well as those which have been formed since; they have also suffered violent changes in their positions, and a part of these assuredly took place while they exist-ed alone, and before they were covered over by the shelly masses. The proof of this lies in the overturnings, the disruptions, and the fissures which are observable in their strata, as well as in those of more recent formation, which are there even in greater number and better defined.

"But these primitive masses have also suffered other revolutions, posterior to the formation of the secondary strata, and have perhaps given rise to, or at least have partaken of, some portion of the revolutions and changes which these latter strata have experienced. There are actually considerable portions of the primitive strata uncovered, although placed in lower situations than many of the secondary strata; and we cannot conceive how it should have so happened, unless the primitive strata, in these places,

had forced themselves into view, after the formation of those which are secondary. In some countries, we find numerous and prodigiously large blocks of primitive substances scattered over the surface of the secondary strata, and separated by deep valleys from the peaks or ridges whence these blocks must have been derived. It is necessary, therefore, either that these blocks must have been thrown into those situations by means of eruptions, or that the valleys, which otherwise must have stopped their course, did not exist at the time of their being transported to their present sites.

"Thus we have a collection of facts, a series of epochs anterior to the present time, and of which the successive steps may be ascertained with perfect certainty, although the periods which intervened cannot be determined with any degree of precision. These epochs form so many fixed points, answering as rules for directing our inquiries respecting this ancient chronology of the earth."

In order to show that "the causes which act at present on the surface of our globe," are imcompetent to produce the revolutions above referred to, he next enters into their examination, in which he treats "of slips, or falling down of the materials of mountains;" "of alluvial formations;" "of the formation of Downs;" "of the formation of cliffs or steep shores;" "of depositions formed in water;" "of stalactites;" "of lithophites;" "of incrustations;" and "of volcanoes," from which he draws the following conclusions:

"Thus we shall seek in vain, among the various forces which still operate on the surface of our earth, for causes competent to the production of those revolutions and catastrophes of which its external crust exhibits so many traces: and if we have recourse to the constant external causes with which we have been hitherto acquainted, we shall have no greater success."

He also concludes (p. 56) that astronomical causes could not have produced these revolutions, at least such as have a slow and gradual operation. The mutation of the earth's axis never exceeds 10 or 11 degrees, and this gradually advances to its maximum, and as gradually returns. This, and the subsidence of the waters from the earth, and the changes from heat to cold, or from cold to heat, are all incompetent, since in acting slowly, they could not have produced sudden effects. After these remarks, he observes that naturalists have been led to make many extraordinary suppositions, and to lose themselves in "erroneous and contradictory speculations." Hence he is led to take a view "of former systems of geology," in which he gives a summary of the prin-

<sup>\*</sup> See Kirwan's Geological Essays.

cipal theories of the earth, that have been advocated. This we give entire, that our readers may better understand the subject, and be prepared to compare our author's system with those of former geologists. His words are the following:—

"During a long time, two events or epochs only, the Creation and the Deluge, were admitted as comprehending the changes which have occurred upon the globe; and all the efforts of geologists were directed to account for the present actual state of the earth, by arbitrarily ascribing to it a certain primitive state, afterwards changed and modified by the deluge, of which also, as to its causes, its operation, and its effects, every one of them entertained his own theory.

them entertained his own theory.
"Thus, in the opinion of Burnet, the whole earth at the first consisted of a uniform light crust, which covered over the abyss of the sea, and which, being broken for the production of the deluge, formed the mountains by its fragments. According to Woodward, the deluge was occasioned by a momentary suspension of cohesion among the particles of mineral bodies; the whole mass of the globe was dissolved, and the soft paste became penetrated by shells. Scheuchzer conceived that God raised up the mountains for the purpose of allowing the waters of the deluge to run off, and accordingly selected those portions which contained the greatest abundance of rocks, without which they could not have supported them-Whiston fancied that the earth was created from the atmosphere of one comet, and that it was deluged by the tail of another. The heat which remained from its first origin, in his opinion, excited the whole antediluvian population, men and animals, to sin, for which they were all drowned in the deluge, excepting the fish, whose passions were apparently less violent.

"It is easy to see, that though naturalists might have a range sufficiently wide within the limits prescribed by the book of Genesis, they very soon found themselves in too narrow bounds: and when they had succeeded in converting the six days employed in the work of creation into so many periods of indefinite length, their systems took a flight proportioned to the periods, which they could then dispose of at pleasure.

"Even the great Leibnitz, as well as Descartes, amused his imagination by conceiving the world to be an extinguished sun, or vitrified globe: upon which the vapours, condensing in proportion as it cooled, formed the seas, and afterwards deposited calcarious strata.

"By Demaillet, the globe was conceived to have been covered with water for many thousand years. He supposed that this water had gradually retired; that all the terrestrial animals were originally inhabitants of the sea; that man himself began his career as a fish: and he asserts, that it is not uncommon, even now, to meet with fishes in the ocean, which are still only half men,

but whose descendants will in time become perfect human beings.

"The system of Buffon is merely an extension of that before devised by Leibnitz, with the addition only of a comet, which, by a violent blow upon the sun, struck off the mass of our earth in a liquified state, along with the masses of all the other planets of our system at the same instant. From this supposition, he was enabled to assume positive dates or epochs: as, from the actual temperature of the earth, it could be calculated how long time it had taken to cool so far. And as all the other planets had come from the sun at the same time, it could also be calculated how many ages were still required for cooling the greater ones, and how far the smaller ones were already frozen.

" In the present day, men of bolder imaginations than ever, have employed themselves on this great subject. Some writers have revived and greatly extended the ideas of Demaillet. They suppose that every thing was originally fluid; that this universal fluid gave existence to animals, which were at first of the simplest kind, such as the monads and other infusory microscopic animalcules; that, in process of time, and by acquiring different habits, the races of these animals became complicated, and assumed that diversity of nature and character in which they now exist. It is by all those races of animals that the waters of the ocean have been gradually converted into calcarious earth; while the vegetables, concerning the origin and metamorphoses of which these authors give us no account, have converted a part of the same water into clay; and these two earths, after being stript of the peculiar characters they had received respectively from animal and vegetable life, are resolved by a final analysis into silex : hence the more ancient mountains are more silicious than the Thus, according to these authors, alf the solid particles of our globe owe their existence to animal or vegetable life, and without this our globe would still have continued entirely liquid.

"Other writers have preferred the ideas of Kepler, and, like that great astronomer, have considered the globe itself as possessed of living faculties. According to them, it contains a circulating vital fluid. A process of assimilation goes on in it as well as in animated bodies. Every particle of it is alive. It possesses instinct and volition even to the most elementary of its molecules, which attract and repel each other according to sympathies and antipathies. Each kind of mineral substance is capable of converting immense masses of matter into its own peculiar nature, as we convert our ali-ment into flesh and blood. The mountains are the respiratory organs of the globe, and the schists its organs of secretion. By the latter it decomposes the waters of the sea in order to produce volcanic eruptions. The veins in strata are caries, or abscesses of the mineral kingdom, and the metals are products of rottenness and disease, to which it

is owing that almost all of them have so bad a smell.

"It must, however, be noticed, that these are what may be termed extreme examples, and that all geologists have not permitted themselves to be carried away by such bold or extravagant conceptions as those we have just cited. Yet, among those who have proceeded with more caution, and have not searched for geological causes beyond the established limits of physical and chemical science, there still remain much diversity and contradiction.

"According to one of these writers, every thing has been successively precipitated and deposited, nearly as it exists at present; but the sea, which covered all, has gradually retired

"Another conceives, that the materials of the mountains are incessantly wasted and floated down by the rivers, and carried to the bottom of the ocean, to be there heated under an enormous pressure, and to form strata which shall be violently lifted up at some future period, by the heat that now consolidates and hardens them.

"A third supposes the fluid materials of the globe to have been divided among a multitude of successive lakes, placed like the benches of an amphitheatre; which, after having deposited our shelly strata, have successively broken their dikes, to descend and fill the basin of the ocean.

"According to a fourth, tides of seven or eight hundred fathoms have carried off from time to time the bottom of the ocean, throwing it up in mountains and hills on the primitive valleys and plains of the continent.

"A fifth conceives the various fragments of which the surface of the earth is composed, to have fallen successively from heaven, in the manner of meteoric stones, and alleges that they still retain the marks of their origin in the unknown species of animals whose exuviæ they contain.

"By a sixth, the globe is supposed to be hollow, and to contain in its cavity a nucleus of loadstone, which is dragged from one pole of the earth to the other by the attraction of comets, changing the centre of gravity, and consequently hurrying the great body of the ocean along with it, so as alternately to drown the two hemispheres."

Cuvier bestows much and deserved praise upon Saussure and Werner, and their pupils, for the pains they have taken in investigating the strata of the earth, and ascertaining their respective antiquity, and thus establishing a system of mineral geology as distinguished from his own, or fossil geology. He admits that other authors and naturalists have studied the fossil remains of organized bodies, but "they have almost always neglected to investigate the general laws affecting their position, or the relation of the extraneous fossils with the strata in which they are found." Hence originates his "Theory

of the Earth," the substance of which is contained in the 23d and 24th sections of the essay before us. These sections offer proofs of the revolutions heretofore stated to have been numerous and sudden; and as the merits of the subject rest upon this part of the work, we quote at large, to afford a full, entire, and satisfactory view of the theory of our author.

"The study of the mineralogical part of geology, though not less necessary, and even a great deal more useful to the practical arts, is yet much less instructive so far as respects the objects of our present inquiry. We remain in utter ignorance respecting the causes which have given rise to the variety in the mineral substances of which strata are composed. We are ignorant even of the agents which may have held some of these substances in a state of solution; and it is still disputed respecting several of them, whether they have owed their origin to the agency of water or fire. After all, philosophers are only agreed on one point, which is, that the sea has changed its place; and this could never have been certainly known, but for the existence of extraneous fossils. These fossils, then, which have given rise to the theory of the earth, have at the same time furnished its principal illustrationsthe only ones, indeed, that have as yet been generally received and acknowledged

"This is the consideration by which I have been encouraged to investigate the subject of extraneous fossils. But the field is extensive; and it is only a very inconsiderable portion of it that can be cultivated by the labour of a single individual. It was necessary, therefore, to select a paritcular department, and I very soon made my choice. That class of extraneous fossils, which forms the peculiar subject of this Essay, engaged my attention at the very outset, because it is evidently the most fertile in affording precise results, yet at the same time less known than others, and richer in new objects of research.

"It is obvious that the fossil remains of the bones of quadrupeds must lead to more rigorous conclusions than any other remains of organized bodies, and that for several reasons.

"In the first place, they indicate much more clearly the nature of the revolutions to which they have been subjected. remains of shells certainly indicate that the sea has once existed in the places where these collections have been formed: but the changes which have taken place in their species, when rigorously inquired into, may possibly have been occasioned by slight changes in the nature of the fluid in which they were formed, or only in its temperature, and may even have arisen from other accidental causes. We can never be perfectly assured that certain species, and even genera, inhabiting the bottom of the sea, aud occupying certain fixed spaces for a longer or shorter time, may not have been

driven away from these by other species or

"In regard to quadrupeds, on the contrary, every thing is precise. The appearance of their bones in strata, and still more of their entire carcasses, clearly establishes that the bed in which they are found must have been previously laid dry, or at least that dry land must have existed in its immediate neighbourhood. Their disappearance as certainly announces that this stratum must have been inundated, or that the dry land had ceased to exist in that state. It is from them, therefore, that we learn with perfect certainty the important fact of the repeated irruptions of the sea upon the land, which the extraneous fossils and other productions of marine origin could not of themselves have proved; and, by a careful investigation of them, we may hope to ascertain the number and the epochs of those irruptions of the sea.

"Secondly, the nature of the revolutions which have changed the surface of our earth, must have exerted a more powerful action upon terrestrial quadrupeds than upon marine animals. As these revolutions have consisted chiefly in changes of the bed of the sea, and as the waters must have destroyed all the quadrupeds which they reached, if their irruption over the land was general, they must have destroyed the entire class, or, if confined only to certain continents at one time, they must have destroyed at least all the species inhabiting these continents, without having the same effect upon the marine animals. On the other hand, millions of aquatic animals may have been left quite dry, or buried in newly-formed strata, or thrown violently on the coasts, while their races may have been still preserved in more peaceful parts of the sea, whence they might again propagate and spread after the agitation of the water had ceased.

"Thirdly, this more complete action is also more easily ascertained and demonstrated; because, as the number of terrestrial quadrupeds is limited, and as most of their species, at least the large ones, are well known, we can more easily determine whether fossil bones belong to a species which still exists, or to one that is now lost. As, on the other hand, we are still very far from being acquainted with all the testaceous animals and fishes belonging to the sea, and as we probably still remain ignorant of the greater part of those which live in the extensive deeps of the ocean, it is impossible to know, with any certainty, whether a species found in a fossil state may not still ex-

ist somewhere alive."

The doubt with which the above quotation concludes, whether any petrifactions of shells are of extinct animals, has also been suggested with respect to the fossil bones of quadrupeds. Nay, we have even been asked the question whether we believed in the reality of organic remains so Vol. III .- No. I.

frequently met with, belonging to extinct This question as may well be supposed, was not asked by a naturalist. but, as all our readers may not have dipped into this branch of science, it may be well to inform them that the fact is certain, and that it is as clearly and satisfactorily ascertained as any problem in Euclid. This certainty arises from a knowledge of the natural history of the animal creation; and the more perfect we become in this science, the greater is the conviction that there are organic remains which belong to extinct species. And when to this is added the information derived from comparative anatomy, nothing can be more clear. It has been supposed that there are many species of animals yet unknown to naturalists. This is no doubt true respecting the smaller ones. but of the larger animals, particularly quadrupeds, there is little or no probability of many new species to be found. This subject is investigated (sect. 25, p. 74) by an examination of the information which the ancients possessed, and of the voyages and travels of modern times; and also (p. 85) by an "Inquiry respecting the fabulous animals of the ancients;" from which, our author concludes, that none of the bones of the larger quadrupeds, found in a fossil state, belong to present existing species. Although there exists some difficulty in distinguishing the fossil bones of quadrupeds, yet comparative anatomy clearly demonstrates that there is a certain determinate correspondency between the various organs and the different bones of the skeleton of an animal; "Thus, if the viscera of an animal are so organized as only to be fitted for the digestion of recent flesh, it is also requisite that the jaws should be so constructed as to fit them for devouring prey; the claws must be constructed for seizing and tearing it to pieces; the teeth for cutting and dividing its flesh; the entire system of the limbs or organs of motion, for pursuing and overtaking it; and the organs of sense, for discovering it at a distance. Nature also must have endowed the brain of the animal with instincts sufficient for concealing itself, and for laying plans to catch its necessary victims."

"To enable the claws of a carnivorous animal to seize its prey, a considerable degree of mobility is necessary in their paws and toes, and a considerable strength in the claws themselves. From these circumstances, there necessarily result certain determinate forms in all the bones of their paws, and in the distribution of the muscles and tendons by which they are moved. The fore-arm must possess a certain facility of

moving in various directions, and consequently requires certain determinate forms in the bones of which it is composed. As the bones of the fore-arm are articulated with the arm-bone or humerus, no change can take place in the form and structure of the former without occasioning correspondent changes in the form of the latter. shoulder blade also, or scapula, requires a correspondent degree of strength in all animals destined for catching prey, by which it likewise must necessarily have an appropriate form. The play and action of all these parts require certain proportions in the muscles which set them in motion, and the impressions formed by these muscles, must still farther determine the forms of all these bones.

"After these observations, it will be easily seen that similar conclusions may be drawn with respect to the hinder limbs of carnivorous animals, which require particular conformations to fit them for rapidity of motion in general; and that similar considerations must influence the forms and connexions of the vertebræ and other bones constituting the trunk of the body, to fit them for flexi-bility and readiness of motion in all directions. The bones also of the nose, of the orbit, and of the ears, require certain forms and structures to fit them for giving perfection to the senses of smell, sight, and hearing, so necessary to animals of prey. In short, the shape and structure of the teeth regulate the forms of the condyle, of the shoulder-blade, and of the claws, in the same manner as the equation of a curve regulates all its other properties; and, as in regard to any particular curve, all its properties may be ascertained by assuming each separate property as the foundation of a particular equation; in the same manner, a claw, a shoulder-blade, a condyle, a leg or arm bone, or any other bone separately considered, enables us to consider the description of teeth to which they have belonged; and so also reciprocally we may determine the forms of the other bones from the teeth. Thus, commencing our investigation by a careful survey of any one bone by itself, a person who is sufficiently master of the laws of organic structure, may, as it were, reconstruct the whole animal to which that bone had belonged.

"This principle is sufficiently evident, in its general acceptation, not to require any more minute demonstration: but when it comes to be applied in practice, there is a great number of cases in which our theoretical knowledge of these relations of forms is not sufficient to guide us, unless assisted by observation and experience.

"For example, we are well aware that all hoofed animals must necessarily be herbivorous, because they are possessed of no means of seizing upon prey. It is also evident, having no other use for their fore-legs than to support their bodies, that they have no occasion for a shoulder so vigorously organized as that of carnivorous animals; owing to which, they have no clavicles or accromion pre-

cesses, and their shoulder-blades are proportionally narrow. Having also no occasion to turn their fore-arms, their radius is joined by ossification to the ulna, or is at least articulated by gynglymus with the humerus. Their food, being entirely herbaceous, requires teeth with flat surfaces, on purpose to braise the seeds and plants on which they feed. For this purpose also, these surfaces require to be unequal, and are consequently composed of alternate perpendicular layers of hard enamel and softer bone. Teeth of this structure necessarily require horizontal motions, to enable them to triturate or grind down the herbaceous food; and, accordingly, the condyles of the jaw could not be formed into such confined joints as in the carnivorous animals, but must have a flattened form, correspondent to sockets in the temporal bones, which also are more or less flat for their reception. The hollows likewise of the temporal bones, having smaller muscles to contain, are narrower, and not so deep, &c. All these circumstances are deducible from each other, according to their greater or less generality, and in such manner that some are essentially and exclusively appropriated to hoofed quadrupeds, while other circumstances, though equally necessary to that description of animals, are not exclusively so, but may be found in animals of other descriptions, where other conditions permit or require their existence.

"When we proceed to consider the different orders or subdivisions of the class of hoofed animals, and examine the modifications to which the general conditions are liable, or rather the particular conditions which are conjoined, according to the respective characters of the several subdivisions, the reasons upon which these particular conditions or rules of conformation are founded become less evident. We can easily conceive, in general, the necessity of a more complicated system of digestive organs in those species which have less perfect masticatory systems; and hence we may presume that these latter animals require especially to be ruminant, which are in want of such or such kinds of teeth; and may also deduce, from the same considerations, the necessity of a certain conformation of the esophagus, and of corresponding forms in the vertebræ of the neck, &c. But I doubt whether it would have been discovered, independently of actual observation, that ruminant animals should all have cloven hoofs, and that they should be the only animals having that particular conformation; that the ruminant animals only should be provided with horns on their foreheads; that those among them which have sharp tusks, or canine teeth, should want horns, &c.

"As all these relative conformations are constant and regular, we may be assured that they depend upon some sufficient cause; and, since we are not acquainted with that cause, we must here supply the defect of theory by observation, and in this way lay down empirical rules on the subject, which

are almost as certain as those deduced from rational principles, especially if established upon careful and repeated observation. Hence, any one who observes merely the print of a cloven hoof, may conclude that it has been left by a ruminant animal, and regard the conclusion as equally certain with any other in physics or in morals. Consequently, this single foot-mark clearly indicates to the observer the forms of the teeth, of the jaws, of the vertebræ, of all the leg-bones, thighs, shoulders, and of the trunk of the body of the animal which left the mark. It is much surer than all the marks of Zadig. Observation alone, independent entirely of general principles of philosophy, is sufficient to show that there certainly are secret reasons for all these relations of which I have been speaking."

By a strict adherence to these rules Cuvier has ascertained and classified the fossil remains of 78 different quadrupeds, forty-nine of which are species heretofore entirely unknown to naturalists. They are not found among living animals, and consequently belong to extinct species. For proofs of these we must refer to Cuvier's great work on fossil organic remains. or to the second part of the publication before us wherein professor Jameson gives an account of Cuvier's geological discoveries. Among the representations of these extinct animals the present essay contains two entire skeletons, one of the megatherium (plate 3) dug out of alluvial soil near Buenos-Ayres, in South America,-an animal apparently allied to the sloths, and the ornithocephalus, found near Aichstedt, in Germany,—a quadruped of the bat kind, with the head of a bird. If further proofs were wanting, the American mammoth, or great mastodon, may be added, the skeleton of which was disinterred in this state and is to be seen in the museum of Philadelphia.

The relation which the species of fossil bones bear to the strata in which they are found, is treated of in the 29th section, p. 111. Here it is stated, that shells alone are found in the oldest flætz, or secondary The next in order are oviformations. parous quadrupeds, as alligators, crocodiles, tortoises, &c. and among them no mammiferous land quadrupeds are to be found. In the basin, around Paris, a formation of chalk, without organic remains, lies above these. But land quadrupeds in abundance succeed in the strata above the chalk. In the upper strata, or alluvial deposites, are the remains of the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, and mastodon. The bones of existing animals are only found in the latest alluvial depositions.

Among the great number and variety of organic remains hitherto discovered, no

human bones have been found. "Hence it clearly appears that no argument for the antiquity of the human race can be founded upon these fossil bones, or upon the more or less considerable collections of rocks, or earthly materials by which they are covered." All these changes which have taken place or the surface of the globe, must have been anterior to the formation of human beings, and consequently the establishment of our existing societies could not have been very ancient, being less than five thousand years. For proofs of this our readers must consult the 32d section of our author, containing the traditionary accounts of a great catastrophe and subsequent renewal of human society.

"I am of opinion, then," says Cuvier in conclusion, "with M. Deluc and M. Dolomieu,-That, if there is any circumstance thoroughly established in geology, it is, that the crust of our globe has been subjected to a great and sudden revolution, the epoch of which cannot be dated much farther back than five or six thousand years ago; that this revolution had buried all the countries which were before inhabited by men and by the other animals that are now best known; that the same revolution had laid dry the bed of the last ocean, which now forms all the countries at present inhabited; that the small number of individuals of men and other animals that escaped from the effects of that great revolution, have since propagated and spread over the lands then newly laid dry; and consequently, that the human race has only resumed a progressive state of improvement since that epoch, by forming established societies, raising monuments, collecting natural facts, and constructing systems of science and of learning.

"Yet farther,—That the countries which are now inhabited, and which were laid dry by this last revolution, had been formerly inhabited at a more remote era, if not by man, at least by land animals; that, consequently, at least one previous revolution had submerged them under the waters; and that, judging from the different orders of animals of which we discover the remains in a fossil state, they had probably experienced two or three irruptions of the sea.

"These alternate revolutions form, in my opinion, the problem in geology that is most important to be solved, or rather to be accurately defined and circumscribed; for, in order to solve it satisfactorily and entirely, it were requisite that we should discover the cause of these events,—an enterprise involving difficulties of a very different nature."

We have thus endeavoured to give an analysis of Cuvier's Theory of the Earth, but any further observation on this, or the remaining parts of the present publication must be deferred to our next number.

E.

# ART. 6. ORIGINAL COMMUNICATIONS.

Supplement to Dr. MITCHILL's "Observations on the Geology of North-America," just published by Messrs. Kirk & Mercein, in the Description of a Fossil Elephant, discovered in Wythe County, southwest of the River Ihanhawa, in Virginia, written by Dr. John Stranger, to lieut. Wm. L. Brownlow, of the U. S. Marine Corps, stationed at N. York, dated Wythe County, March 10, 1818.

DEAR SIR,

Your letter has been received some weeks ago, after my return from North-Carolina, which should have been answered before this time, had I not been at a loss to know, what particular information Dr. Mitchill wishes with regard to the teeth and bones found on Mr. Kinsa's However, that you may not think your friendly application to me disregarded, I will now comply with your request, as well as I can. The place where the discovery was made, is a small marshy piece of ground, not more than 40 feet square, in a field which has been for more than 20 years in cultivation, and has previous to that time, as I am informed, been used as a lick by horses and cattle, a small spring of mineral taste oozes from the spot. The owner of the field observed repeatedly in the summer season, in dry weather, after a refreshing shower, that the place was covered with a white Under this impressubstance like salt. sion he began to dig in search of salt wa-The ground being opened a few feet ter. in depth, he found a few uncommon teeth and small round bones, about 4 inches long and about 1 1-2 inches in diameter, solid and somewhat larger in circumference at each end, like joints of a tail, or The news of this discovery induced several persons to visit the spot: I also went, and being desirous to make a farther search, I obtained permission to make a larger opening, say 12 feet square, and found a number of still larger teeth and bones, belonging, in my opinion, to two different species of animals, larger than any we now have within our states. The bones were so much decayed, that they would generally fall to pieces, when exposed to the air; the teeth I preserved, and some time afterwards put them in the possession of Dr. John Floyd, (a member from Virginia in the present congress) residing in Montgomery county, who probably, sent them to some Museum. The soil was so strongly impregnated with the mineral, that it tasted like copperas itself. The

position in which the teeth and bones were found, was somewhat remarkable. large teeth, two of which weighed 16lb. each, and several more of less weight and size, were deposited in a manner by themselves, and deeper in the ground, according to their gravity: round about those, some little distance off, were the teeth and bones of the lesser animals, placed in a semicircle; of the latter I found several jawbones with their teeth sticking fast; and in one upper-jaw I found besides a tusk, about 20 inches long, shaped like a cow's horn, round, crooked, tapering off to a point, hollow at the base, and pointing forward towards the nose, also a couple of ribs and shoulder blades. The smaller animals I judged to have been of the carnivorous, from the shape of their teeth. which had a double row of high conic processes, three to each row, between 3 and 4 inches from the bottom of the root to the top of the tooth, and each was about All the teeth of the large 3 inches long. animal (I found no bones of this animal) were flat, and ribbed transversely. remarkable position of the different bones and teeth, made me suppose, that the large animal had died in a conflict with the smaller ones. Or why should I have found several sets of teeth and bones of the one kind, and all in that semicircle, and but one set of teeth of the large animal opposite to them. None of these teeth were deeper than about 6 feet in the ground, when a flat limestone rock commenced, which rock must have been once nearer to the surface, for I found pine-knots, and pieces of rotten wood This, sir, is all within two feet above it. the information I can think of, should Dr. Mitchill be desirous to know any other circumstance relative to this affair, I will cheerfully give it, if in my power.

I am, Sir, respectfully, Your humble servant, JOHN STRANGER.

To the Editors of the American Monthly Magazine.

The salivating qualities which our pastures seem to possess for these last ten or fifteen years, so distressing to horses and neat-cattle, I have long wished to see philosophically investigated and publicly announced. The farmer, however, is still left to his own vague conjectures, and there is not a species of grass or herb which will grow in pasture land, but has

been accused of producing this deleterious effect. Now, permit me to suggest, (which I can do with much confidence,) that it ought not to be attributed to any vegetable whatever, but to that species of spider which, weaving a thick horizontal web near the surface of the ground, covers, in some pastures, one-tenth of the surface during the greater part of the summer months. Should this suggestion induce the curious to an investigation of the properties and rapid progress of this insect, and a plain publication of the same, with the best method of counteracting its baneful effects, its object will have been attained, and the suggestor highly gratified.

D. D.

Marcellus, April 2, 1818.

# GENTLEMEN,

The following is taken from a Glasgow paper of the 20th of January last; if you deem it worth a place in your useful magazine, you can give it one.

P. H.

"SIR—Allow me to submit to you, a reference to the curious coincidence of the figures 1818, which denote the present year, viz. that the two first are 18, the two last 18, and the sum of all

# "And also-

1818	multiplied by	2	give	3636	the sum of which is	18
1010	do.	3	8	5454	do.	18
	do.	4	-	7272	do.	18
	do.	5	-	9090	do.	18
	do.	6	-	10,908	do.	18
	do.	7	-	12,726	do.	18
	do.	8	-	14,544	do.	18
	do.	9	-	16,362	do.	18
	do.	10	-	18,180	do.	18
	do.	12	-	21,816	do.	18
	do.	13	-	23,634	do.	18
-	do.	14	-	25,452	do	18
	do.	15	**	27,270	do.	18
	do.	17	-	30,906	do.	18
-	do.	18	-	32,724	do.	18
	do.	19	-	34,542	do.	18
	do.	20	-	36,360	do.	18
-	do.	23	-	41,814	do.	18
	do.	24	-	43,632	do.	18
	do.	25	-	45,450	do.	18
	do.	28	-	50,904	do.	18
	do.	29	-	52,722	do.	18
	do.	30	-	54,540	do.	18

MESSRS. EDITORS,

The writer of the fifth article in your Magazine for April, assumes to have taken a survey "of ancient and modern times and nations." He does not appear to be exactly qualified for such a task. I do not intend to offer a review of the "Review of Ellis's embassy to China;" I beg leave merely to rectify a few of the mistakes, which occur in that article.

It must be evident to every person of

common sense, and ordinary intelligence, that some of the remarks in that review are reprehensible.

The writer would make us believe that in the English "island, more has been accomplished for the glory of our species than in all other regions of the globe!"—This is hyperbolical—it is untrue. No one will deny that England deserves our admiration;—let her possess that meed, but let other countries not be deprived of their

just portion. And, when we speak in general terms of any individual people, or "regions of the globe;" when we presume to make estimates of individual and national character, let that which is exceptionable and commendable, equally claim our consideration. As to "achievements in literature, science, and the arts," England, though eminent, is by no means transcendent. Some of the most beneficial inventions and discoveries were introduced into England from other countries. Many indisputable facts might be advanced to prove this assertion. However, for the present, the following may suffice as a reply to the erroneous state-ments set forth in the review.

"In the year 1769, kine-pox was described (in a weekly paper: Allgemaine Unterhaltungen, published at Göttingen,) as a well known disease 'here in this country' (Germany) which infects persons who attend the dairies and prevents the infection of small-pox." Dr. Jenner, (an Englishman with a German name) first published his "Inquiry into the causes and effects of Variola Vaccina," &c. in 1798, twenty-nine years later.

Some have attributed "the invention of Logarithms" to lord John Napier, a Scotchman. But ." there is greater reason to believe that a German clergyman, Michael Stiefel was the inventor of Logarithms, in 1599."

" In 1793, Walther, a citizen of Nürnberg, first observed astronomical refraction.

"In 1604, John Kepler, a German, established a theory of refraction.'

"In 1609, the same predecessor and pioneer of the immortal Newton, discovered that the courses of the planets are eliptic, &c. &c. He made some calculations of the proportionate motions of the celestial bodies; suspected a power of gravitation and attraction universally and mutually operative among the planets."

"On the 29th of December in the same year, Simeon Marius (Meyer,) at Ansbach, first observed the satellites of Jupiter; and in 1618, Kepler made some further discoveries relative to the revolution of the planets."

" The first account of a Steam-Engine is given by Matthesius, a clergyman in Ioackimsthal, Bohemia, in the year 1562," a long time before the Marquis of Worcester was born.

Every person acquainted with literature in general, knows very well that on the European continent, there is as bright a constellation of "men of letters, and in the sphere of divinity" as ever shed a lustre on England. And it would be an easy matter to quote names and works to prove the fallacy of the assertion: "compared with the strain of the British muses, the poetical productions of their continental rivals lose almost the whole of their attraction."

Though we do not intend to open the door of discussion, in regard to the correctness of opinions stated in the reviews which appear in this miscellany, yet we have no hesitation in giving place to corrections in regard to statements of facts. The review of Ellis's book is from the pen of a gentleman of talents and learning, whose contributions frequently enrich our pages. Having a just confidence in his abilities, and not imagining that he could make the subject, of which he professed to treat, an occasion of offence, we permitted his sheets to be sent to the press without our inspection. There were many assertions, in that article, besides those complained of by our correspondent, which, had we had an opportunity to revise it, we should have expunged. extravagant eulogium on British genius was entirely misplaced in an American publication; and some of the literary opinions advanced by the author of that review are opposed to those previously expressed by ourselves.

To the Editors of the American Monthly Magazine and Critical Review.

#### GENTLEMEN,

One of your correspondents, in the Magazine for last month, communicated remarks on the method I proposed for finding the latitude by altitudes of the sun taken at a distance from the Meridian. For my communication entitled, Hints on the Methods of determining the Latitude and Longitude of places on the Land, your readers are referred to the Magazine for December last. Your correspondent from New-Bedford, is entitled to my thanks for the kind remarks he has made upon it, and the friendly manner in which he undertakes to convince me of my supposed error. On a review of the same, it is frankly acknowledged, that the example or case alluded to, was stated, inadvertently, in such a manner as to give a wrong impression of the use I made of it. The altitudes taken Aug. 6, 1817, were intended for the correction of a patent lever watch, not well regulated, and for obtaining the apparent time as nearly as possible for other observations. The mean of these gave the time per watch, 8 h.

3 m. 38.8 sec. the mean altitude corrected 32° 24' 3.5", and in this instance, the polar distance was reduced to the time per watch. It may not be improper to remark, that having taken the latitude of my school-room and observatory, at No. 331 Broadway, in Sept. 1816, it was found to be 40° 42′ 58" N. In August and September, 1817, great pains were taken to verify or disprove its correctness. To effect this, altitudes were taken near the meridian, and when possible, the meridian altitude. And after I had found to my satisfaction, that all the best observations tended nearly to the same point; several sets of altitudes which had appeared to be very correct, and first taken for obtaining the true time, were now selected to verify the latitude by the method your correspondent alludes to. In the foregoing example, the watch being 7 m. 35 sec. slow, the polar distance was now reduced to the apparent time, and from these elements the latitude came out essentially the same as before. In three or four experiments of the same kind, the variations from 40° 43' was not more than two or three seconds; hence it was concluded, that the latitude, times, and altitudes, were all very pearly correct. This method, it is believed, will prove an assumed, or supposed latitude, to be true when it is actually so; and if I am not much deceived, will discover whether it is materially incorrect. And, although it is admitted, that the problem as it stands in my former communication, can be of no great value in discovering the true latitude, I cannot agree with your correspondent that it will prove fallacious.

Let us suppose the true latitude, for an example, to be 40° 43′ N. and the longitude 74″ W. the altitudes truly taken at the time aforesaid, would correspond to this only. And if the observer had supposed it to be 40° 40′, the apparent time deduced from this would differ from the former about 44 seconds, and instead of reproducing the latter, would bring out 40° 38′. Now perceiving that 40′ is too far to the southward, let him try 41′, 42′

and lastly 43', he will discover the last to be true, because all the elements, or data, are in harmony with each other. It is confessed, that at the time, I was reasoning in a circle of my own forming, and seemingly had a right thus to reason, having found the centre. But this being done, it ought to have been my care to go out of it, and give the problem its proper limitations. Hoping it is not too late, in some measure to atone for this omission, it is thus stated: The longitude of a place on the land, and the true time being known, to determine the latitude of the same, by altitude of the sun, taken two or three hours before or after noon, with a sextant and artificial horizon, when the meridian altitude is too great to be measured by those instruments. Your correspondent will doubtless admit the possibility of obtaining the true time independent of the latitude; and may be informed that there is no necessity of taking the altitudes so near the horizon, as to be very sensibly affected by the difference between the true and mean refraction; and also, that the errors arising from thissource, may be so diminished, as to become almost insensible, by the use of the Barometer and Thermometer. It will be seen, from what has already been stated, that I still differ in opinion from your correspondent in several particulars; and I cannot agree with him where he says, "A small error in the altitude, taken at a distance from the meridian, will cause a considerable error in the latitude." I think he will be convinced by a little reflection, that an error of the meridian altitude, will cause an error of the same amount in the latitude; whereas the absolute error in the other case will be less than the small error of the altitude. In matters of science, truth, and not strife, should be the object of its votaries. Under the impression of a similarity of feeling, between him and myself, in this respect, I remain,

Gentlemen,

Your most obedient servant, M. NASH.

New-York, April 10, 1818.

# ART. 7. LITERARY AND PHILOSOPHICAL INTELLIGENCE.

# LITERARY INTELLIGENCE. GREAT BRITAIN.

A VERY pretty little instrument was invented during the last summer by Dr. Brewster of Edinburgh. He calls it the Kaleidoscope (xaxos, sucos, and oxonia.) It is constructed by placing together two

polished rectangular or triangular plates; or mirrors at one of their edges, that their surfaces may form an angle of about 18° more or less. The plates are from 5 to 10 inches long, according to the local distance of the eye, and are placed together in a tube, one end of which is left entirely

open, and the other nearly closed, except a small aperture. The eye is fixed at the latter; the object being then placed at the other extremity is seen in the form of a brilliant, luminous circle, which is divided into as many sectors (each containing a representation of the part of the object seen,) as the number of times the angle of the reflector is contained in 360°. When the object is tinged with different colours, and in motion, more numerous and beautiful forms and colours, all of perfect symmetry, play around this extremity of the reflector, having a most pleasing effect, and more than verifying the projected occular harpsichord of Custil-The instrument may be adapted to take in large objects at a distance, and to vary the figure from that of the circle to a square, &c. It is of great utility to ornamental artists in multiplying their arrangements and combinations of colours, figures, &c. as pattern makers, gilders, jewellers, &c. almost precluding the labour of design.

See Patent. Repertory of Arts, &c. Nov. 1817.

#### GERMANY.

It is confidently asserted that the University of Berlin is to be located at Wittenberg, that very ancient seat of the sciences; or at Bonn, an ancient German city on the Rhine.

Baron Von Sack intends to make a scientific tour in Egypt. He will be accompanied by Mr. Wilhelm Müller, agent of the Academy of Berlin.

In the month of July, 1817, the turf-diggers near Friedleburg, in the Parish of Etzel, East Friesland, discovered a human skeleton below the stratum of peat, or turf, which seemed to have been superinduced subsequent to the interment of the body, which reposed on a stratum of sand. Simultaneous evidences which this discovery presented, warrant the conclusion that the human body, of which the skeleton is still entire, must have lain there upwards of 2000 years!

# UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

At a meeting of the Hon. the Board of Regents of the University of New-York, held at Albany, on the 24th of March last, John W. Francis, M. D. Professor of the Institutes of Medicine in the College of Physicians and Surgeons of the University of New-York, was also elected to the Professorship of Forensic Medicine in the same Institution, recently made vacant by the death of Professor James S. Stringham.

The Annual Commencement of the

College of Physicians and Surgeons in the University of the State of New-York, was held on the 7th of April last. The degree of Doctor in Medicine was granted to the following thirty-five gentlemen who had been students of the University, had undergone the several examinations required by its laws, and publicly defended their respective Inaugural Dissertations. After the candidates had received their academic henours, the venerable and learned President, Samuel Bard, M. D. LL. D. delivered an interesting address to the graduates.

John B. Ayerigg, of New-York, on Sphacelus.

Abner Alden, of New-York, on Plu-

Charles P. Allen, of New-York, on Diabetes.

Joseph Baxter, of Massachusetts, on Cutaneous Perspiration.

Ezekiel Robins Baudouine, A. B. of New-York, on the Diseases of Dentition.

Remi Seraphin Bourdages, of Canada, Sur l'inflamation aigue du système muqueux.

Frederic Burnham, of New-York, on Assimilation and Life.

Joseph Canby, of Ohio, on Tetanus. Stephen C. Farrar, of Virginia, on Emetics.

Jeremiah Fickling, of South Carolina, on Phlegmasia Dolens.

Thomas Fortier, of Canada, Sur Les phenomenes de la puberte, chez la Femme.

David H. Fraser, A. M. of New-York, on the Medical Police of the Navy.

John F. Henry, of Kentucky, on Puerperal Fever.

Herman L. Hoffman, of New-York, on the Secale Cornutum.

Benjamin F. Hickman, of Virginia, on Typhus Fever.

Abraham Hopper, of New-Jersey, on Epilepsy.

Abraham T. Hunter, of New-York, on the Plethora of the Aged.

Jesse Isler, of North Carolina, on the Epidemic, as it appeared in Tarborough, North Carolina.

John G. Lance, of South Carolina, on the Yellow Fever of Charleston.

Thomas G. Mower, of Massachusetts, on Gangrene.

Jacob C. W M'Donald, of South Carolina, on the Yellow Fever of Charleston.

Archibald Nicholson, of Georgia, on Hepatitis.

Richard B. Owen, of Tennessee, on Hydrocephalus.

James M. Pendleton, A. B. of New-York, on Puerperal Fever.

David Quackenbush, A. B. of New-York, on Pneumonia Typhodes.

Chauncey E. Perkins, of Ohio, on the late Malignant Epidemic of the United States.

William Provines, of Ireland, on Puerperal Fever.

Moses J. De Rosset, A. B. of North Carolina, on Cold Bathing.

Thomas E. Screven, of South Carolina, on Anthrax.

Elisha Sheldon, of Vermont, on the na-

ture of Arterial Circulation in Typhus Fever.

John Torrey, of New-York, on Dysens teru.

Daniel H. Trezevant, of South Carolina. on Cold.

Adrian Vanderveer, A. B. of New-Jersey, on the Human Ear.

John S. Wiley, of New-York, on the Use of Setons.

John Q. Wynkoop, of New-York, on Epilepsy.

# ART. 8. RELIGIOUS INTELLIGENCE.

THE second Annual Meeting of the AMERICAN BIBLE SOCIETY will be held in this city, on the second Thursday of this month, (14th May.)

The Treasurer of the American Bible Society acknowledges the receipt of \$2,342 during the month of March.

The managers of the American Bible

Society, at their meeting on the 19th day of March, 1818, adopted the following resolution, viz.

"That in ordinary cases occuring within the United States, it is inconsistent with the best interests of this society to distribute the Bible gratuitously, except through the medium of auxiliary societies."

#### ART. 9. POETRY.

To the Editors of the American Monthly Magazine.

GENTLEMEN,

The following Elegy on the elder Pitt, was presented to me by an esteemed friend, who was formerly in the East-India trade. The copy was presented to him by a British officer, in Canton, who informed him, that it was, he believed, the only one in existence.\* There never was but one impression of this poem, it having been suppressed by an order of council. It was occasioned by Mr. Pitt's being created earl of Chatham, in 1766. The poet goes upon the supposition, (which happily was not realized) that his being made a Peer, would make him an apostate, and, therefore, with a peculiar poignancy, accosts him by the name of Pynsent, a patriotic baronet, who died some time before, and left him a large sum, as a reward for his strenuous exertions in the cause of freedom and his country. The cause of freedom and his country. author had, doubtless, the conduct of Mr. Pulteney in view; and concluded that (as in the physical system, so in the political) a similar cause would be productive of a like effect. He was mistaken. However, this little piece, abstractedly considered, and merely as an effort of genius, in my opinion, possesses great merit. It is impossible to read and not admire it. If you should, on the perusal, think favourably of its merits; by rescuing it from obscurity, and giving it a place in your poetic department, you will probably amuse many of your readers, and confer a particular favour on

Yours, sincerely, T. ROBINSON.

Binghamton, Broome Co. April 1, 1816.

#### ELEGY

On the late Hon. WILLIAM PITT, Esq.

" Oh Lucifer, son of the morning, how art thon fallen!"

IF, when the stern relentless hand of Fate, Has snatch'd some hero in his early bloom; Or seiz'd unpitying on the good and great, To swell the sable triumphs of the tomb;—

If, when the guardians of a country die,
The grateful tear, in tenderness should start,
Or the keen anguish of a redd'ning eye,
Proclaim the deep affliction of the heart;—

How must the feeling bosom bear its strife!

How must the voice of gratitude exclaim!

When some fell hour has seiz'd on more than life,
And wrought the worst of murders on their
fame!

When we lament for patriotic fire,
A glorious envy mingles with the tear,
And though we weep, we secretly admire,
And nobly grudge the glory of in bier.

<sup>\*</sup> This is a mistake. We have read this Elegy in some printed collection of poems. But it is rare—and we are obliged to our friendly correspondent for recalling it to our remembrance.

- But when some high, some celebrated name,
  Flies meanly back from virtue's generous race,
  And stains a whole eternity of fame,
  To gain a glitt'ring ensign of disgrace;
- When some ennobled self-exalted sage,
  Superior far to hecatombs of kings,
  The friend, the sire, the saviour of an age,
  Gives up a realm for earldom and for strings;
- Sharp indignation mingles with distress,
  Howe'er he once was godlike in our eyes,
  And spite of all the pity we possess,
  We must retain our justice, and despise.
- Fain would the muses for a favourite plead,
  Fain would they form some reconciling plan,
  To spare the person, yet condemn the deed,
  To brand the baseness, yet preserve the man.
- But ah! what plea, what language has the power,
  Howe'er important, tender, or sublime,
  To check the sunbeam'd swiftness of an hour,
  Or snatch the glass from ever flying time?
- Can the fine magic of a melting strain
  Invert the well known principle of things,
  Remove the sigh from agonizing pain,
  Or guard the guilty bosom from its stings?
- Allied, alas! for ever to the crime,
  No kind attention can the person claim,
  But blackens downwards on the lapse of time,
  The equal object of eternal shame.
- Ah! what avails the wide capacious mind,
  With every science accurately fraught,
  The keen-eyed fancy, sparkling and refin'd,
  The blaze of genius, and the burst of thought?
- Ah! what avails the magnitude of soul,
  Which, sway'd by sterling sentiment alone,
  Taught the big bolt of eloquence to roll,
  And thunder'd strong conviction round the
  throne?
- Bade sinking Britons shake away the gloom,
  That long had bound her temples in disgrace,
  And, like the bold but deathless chief of Rome,
  Twined everlasting laurels in their place.
- These no blest veil, no mantle ever threw,
  To screen a paltry prostitute from morn,
  But stripp'd them still more openly to view,
  And call'd aloud for aggravated scorn.
- When the dull slave, or sycophant confess'd, Erects, on guilt, his coronated car, Or hides his native turpitude of breast, Beneath the venal dazzling of a star;
- No conscious blush compels the cheek to glow, The brow no mark of wonder will display, For fools, we see, are always caught with show, And ever find that villains will betray.
- But when the first in Fame's immortal round, Charm'd with the gewgaw's fascinating glare, Exchange intrinsic character for sound, And basely barter Liberty for air;
- Their very worth, contrasted with the fall,
  A new disgrace inevitably sheds,
  Gives the keen curse, accumulated gall,
  And drags down wider vengeance on their heads

- Where then unhappy Pynsent canst thou run, Or strive to hide, oh! elevated slave! What pitying cell can screen thee from the sun. Or kindly yield a temporary grave?
- Fly with the lightning's rapidness of haste, Where dread Ohio's melancholy flood, Glooms with unusual horror in the waste, And swells deep crimson'd with Britannia's blood
- Yet rather seek some confine of the earth, Where British footsteps never have been known, Where the sweet sunbeam dies before its birth, Or hapless nature burns beneath the zone;
- Beyond where Zembla, with eternal snows, All cold and shivering, in herself retires, Or where parch'd Afric vehemently glows, In all the swartness of Autumnal fires.
- Then, while the wond'ring savages applaud,
  Retain thy baseness, yet preserve the pride,
  As some state minion, infamously awed,
  Yet still affect the privilege to guide.
- But why should Pynsent madly urge his flight, And poorly servile to a trivial lay, Explore the bound'ries of perpetual night, Or seek the realms of ever-scorching day?
- Can the mere casual circumstance of pole,
  The unmeaning dull variety of clime,
  Restore the once known cheerfulness of soal,
  Or pour one ray of comfort on his crime?
- Must not a kingdom's heart-directed cries,
  Like the dread tempest's all destroying sweep
  O'ertake the illustrious caitiff as he flies,
  And sink the recreant vessel in the deep?
- Tho' the white cliffs of the deserted shore,
  No more should silver on his hated eyes,
  Should strike his breast with consciousness no
  more,
  Nor ring his foul dishonour through the skies;
- Still, what blest balm from consolation caught, In distant worlds can Pynsent hope to find, Unless he flies as rapidly from thought, And leave both sense and memory behind.
- Should he bestride the swiftest steeds of day, Or mount on whirlwinds with unnumber'd wings; Still guilt would seize the dastard on his way, And conscience dart unutterable stings;
- Still would one curst, one execrable word, Unman his soul, and agonize his frame, And that detested epithet of LORD, O'erwhelm the wretch with misery and shame.
- Oh! why, when virtue's heaven-descended heat, Sinks by ambition fatally oppress'd, Or high-soul'd honour tott'ring from her seat, Resigns the spotless empire of the breast,
- Why doth not tenfold impudence stand forth
  To shield in brass the blush-betraying face,
  And when we're dead to sentiment and worth,
  Destroy the dread of scandal and disgrace?
- Triumphant slaves might then securely reign, Nor meanly shrink, to look upon the morn; Behold the power of kingdoms with disdain, And treat the indignant universe with scorn.

No Pynsent, then, need hesitate an hour, To prop a sinking villain, or his cause; Nor seek to screen an avarice for power, With the poor veil of popular applause.

Quite unappall'd beneath the rage of times,
He then might spring with transport into place,
And lay a sure foundation on his crimes,
To build the future glories of his race.

But Heaven's high will has graciously design'd,
That strong remorse with infamy should dwell,
And placed an awful censor in the mind,
That damns the traitor to an instant hell.

Hence, when from virtue's sacred course we fly,
The blush, in deep'ning crimson will be drest,
The rising gush will deluge all the eye,
And more than adders gnaw along the breast.

And yet, if nought but conscience, with her snakes,

The slave's base view is able to control,
If no bright spark of honour ever wakes,
The cold dead fibres of the flinty soul;

What greater proofs of tenderness and love, Can Heaven's high hand beneficently show, Than dooming those, who dread no Judge above, To certain shame and wretchedness below?

Yet tell us, Pynsent, is there aught in state, In ermin'd pomp, or coronated glare, To sooth the sharp severity of fate, Or shield the rankling bosom from despair?

Can the poor toy that glitters o'er a crest, Or all the illustrious baubles of a throne, Bestow one peaceful honour on a breast That basely stoops to prostitute its own?

Hast thou, (and tell us generously now)
Since that curst hour on infamous record,
When the green laurel with ring on thy brow,
Beheld thee vilely dwindling to a lord,

Hast thou (nor dare with conscience in thine eye,
To breathe a thought, or accent insincere)
Once seen the blessed morn without a sigh,
Or met the sable eve without a tear?

Has the drear darkness of the midnight hour, E'er kindly blest thy pillow with repose, Or the soft balm of sleep's refreshing power, Once taught those lids in tenderness to close? Or say, if sleep once fortunately stole,
When life's low lamp could scarcely shed a gleam,
Did not some demon harrow up thy soul,
And stab the short, the momentary dream?

Did not wide fancy's all-exploring clue,
Bid time's deep womb be accurately shown,
And raised such baleful images to view,
As scared thy coward consciousness to stone?

O! Pynsent, what had empires to bestow,
That e'er thy worth or character could raise,
Teach wond'ring worlds more gratefully to glow,
Or add a single particle to praise?

Did not whole senates hang upon thy voice,
And suppliant climes solicit thee for laws;
Nay, did not Fame, obedient to thy choice,
Still give the wreath, as thou wouldst give applause?

Say, could ambition's most exalted fire,
Misguided man, be gratified with more,
Than awe-struck senates, always to admire,
And echoing realms to wonder and adore?

What then, quite withering on the stalk of age, Diseased, emaciate, sinking to the grave, Could drag thee now, thus tott'ring on the stage, To load the wretched skeleton with slave;

Trembling on life's most miserable verge,
Nay, even now just numb'ring with the dead,
Why wouldst thou thus in infamy immerge,
And pluck a kingdom's curses on thy head?

That kingdom too, whose ever grateful eyes,
Thy matchless worth so tenderly could see,
That scarce she breath'd an accent to the skies,
But what was wing'd with benisons for thee.

Oh! hapless Pynsent, when the pitying muse, Sees thee supremely eminent and good, In palsied age, relinquish all the views, For which thro' youth you generously stood;

When the bright guardian of a freeborn land, In life's last age, sinks utterly deprav'd, And in some minion's execrated hand, Destroys those realms, which formerly he sav'd,

Lost in the passions widely raging tide,
An actual type of chaos she appears,
Then throws the pen distractedly aside,
To give an ample fullness to her tears.

# ART. 10. MONTHLY SUMMARY OF POLITICAL INTELLIGENCE.

#### EUROPE.

THE British Cabinet consists of the following members: lord high chancellor, lord Eldon; lord president of the council, earl of Harrowby; lord of the privy seal, earl of Westmoreland, K. G.; first lord of the treasury, earl of Liverpool, K. G.; master general of the ordnance, earl of Mulgrave; secretary of state for the foreign department, Viscount Castlereagh, K. G.; secretary for the home department, Viscount Sidmouth; first lord of the admiralty, Viscount Mel-

ville; chancellor of the exchequer, right hon. N. Vansittart; president of the board of control, right hon. Geo. Canning; master of the mint, right hon. W. Wellesley Pole; chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, right hon. C. B. Bathurst.

The whole import of Cotton into Great Britain in 1817, is estimated at 479,291 packages of various sizes, weighing by computation 131,951,200 lb. which at an average of 1s. 6d. per. lb. would amount to nearly 10 millions sterling. The greater part of this immense importation has been brought into

Liverpool. This quantity exceeds the imports of 1815 and 1816, severally, by about 110,000 bags, weighing about 41,000,000 lb. or upwards of two millions sterling. The greatest part of this increase has arisen from the opening of the East India trade, which, in extent and importance, it is thought, will soon rival the trade to the W. Indies, as far as respects Liverpool.

The British navy is about to be enlarged by the addition of 5 new first rate ships of the line, and 14 second rate,—38 frigates, and 15 sloops of war.

The American minister, Mr. Rush has been received at the court of St. James in the most amicable manner.

The princess Elizabeth is betrothed to prince Frederick Joseph Louis of Hesse Hombourg. The princess will have a mar-riage portion of £40,000, and her annual income will be £15,000. Frederick is hereditary prince, and in his 49th year: the reigning duke is 70 years old.

Notwithstanding the recent proceedings of the Chambers in favour of the liberty of the press, all the copies of the third number of the Sentinelle de l'Honneur, have been seized. This political pamphlet is written by M. Joulin de la Salle, cousin to the general Bertrand who is at St. Helena. The duke of Wellington is particularly attacked in it, and is denominated an insolent Pro-consul.

Negociations are in a state of advancement, which will, it is expected, terminate in the removal of the army of occupation from France. Some changes are to take place in the command of divisions; some exiles are to be restored to their country, and among others, Soult, who will be reinstated in his rank of field marshal.

#### SPAIN.

The most active preparations are said to be making in Cadiz to man the Russian fleet for South-America. It is, however, represented on the other hand, that the ships are likely to be laid up at Cadiz to rot, being badly constructed and of poor materials,

# GERMANY The proposed basis for the military contingent of Germany, which subject was taken into consideration by the Diet, on the 19th instant, requires a levy of two per cent. on the population of that great country. The gross population of Germany is about 30,000,000, of which 6,000,000 will be nearly the number of males capable of bearing Two in every hundred of these would constitute an army of 120,000 men, the exact amount of force which it was stated the army of the confederation was

# designed to muster.

The old king of Sweden is dead. The day after his demise, Bernadotte was proclaimed king, and the council assembled, before which he took the oath of office, and received their allegiance. Before this event,

prince Oscar, son of Bernadotte, had been authorised to exercise the sovereignty, whenever the king and his father should be both ill, or both absent; thus his right of succession has been indirectly acknowledged.

#### RUSSIA

Accounts from Taganrock, upon the Black Sea, indicate a very rapid increase of the commercial importance of that quarter. Though that port is less frequented than Odessa, yet, in 1817, 387 vessels sailed from it, besides coasters to the number of 132, The importations of gold and silver specie amounted to 5,582,249 roubles; in addition to which, the value of the merchandise imported was 2,658,645 roubles; the exports, amounting to 11,979,700 roubles, there remains, in favour of Russian commerce, an excess of 9,321,033 roubles.

# EAST INDIES.

The whole country between Madras and Bombay is said to be in a state of insurrection. The earl of Moira has marched against the patriots at the head of 90,000 men, chief. ly natives.

# MERICA. -

# SPANISH AMERICA.

# Venezuela.

After a circumstantial report that the royalists under Morillo had met with signal discomfiture, and that Laguira was in the utmost distress and confusion from the apprehended approach of the patriots, it has been since stated that Morillo had gained an important victory over Bolivar and Piaz, by which Laguira was restored to tranquillity and Caraccas relieved from the dreaded attack.

Mexico.
The Report of General Mina's death is contradicted. Colonel Melville, of General Mina's staff, has arrived in the United States, on his way to Washington; he states that he left Mina, on the 28th November, at Guanaxuato with 5000 men, and his affairs in a prosperous state,

# BRITISH AMERICA.

#### Canada.

Robert Gourlay, of Upper Canada, has offered to make the following contract for settling the country :-- if government will give him the management of the public lands of Upper Canada, for thirty years, he will maintain, during that time, two regiments for his Majesty-repair all the forts-and, for the last twenty years of the term, pay an annual rent to Great Britain of £100,000 sterling.

### UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

### PROCEEDINGS OF CONGRESS.

### Senate.

Wednesday, March 18th. The resolution moved yesterday by Mr. King, that the President be requested to cause to be surveyed certain ports and harbours for the purpose of selecting two stations for arsenal ports, the report of the survey to be laid before the Senate during the first week of the next session, &c. was agreed to.

Among other bills, one for defraying the expenses of militia in marching to places of rendezvous, was passed and sent to the House of

Representatives for concurrence.

Thursday, March 19th. On motion of Mr.

Eppes, it was resolved, That the President of the United States be requested to cause to be laid before the Senate, an estimate of the sum necessary for the establishment of two docks for the purpose of repairing vessels of the largest

On motion of Mr. Ruggles it was resolved that the committee on public lands be instructed to inquire into the expediency of extending the jurisdiction of the territory of Michigan to the eastern boundary of the Illinois territory. remainder of the sitting was occupied in matur-ing the details of the bill for adjusting the claims to land, and for establishing land offices in the districts east of the island of New-Orleans.

Friday, March 20th. Mr. Crittenden, from

the committee on the judiciary, reported a bill prescribing the manner of deciding controversies between different states.

Mr. Williams, of Ten. from the committee on military affairs, reported a bill to reduce the staff of the army, with additional sections, regulating the distribution of rations to the army.

The President laid before the senate the general account of the treasurer of the United States, for 1817, and the accounts of the war and navy departments, from Oct. 1816 to Oct. 1817, to-

gether with the reports thereon.

On motion of Mr. Talbot, resolved, that the committee on roads, &c. be instructed to inquire into the expediency of providing by law for the subscription, on the part of the United States, for certain shares in the Kentucky and Ohio

Canal Company, &c.

Mr. Campbell, from the committee on finance, reported the bill to authorise the state of Tennessee to issue grants, and perfect titles to certain entries and locations of lands, &c. After

some further business, adjourned till Monday.

Monday, March 23d. A report was made, declaring it inexpedient to extend the provisions of law prescribing the mode in which public records, &c. in each state, shall be authenticated, to give them effect in another state, &c.

The President communicated the memorial of the legislature of the Alabama territory, pray ing for power to incorporate companies to build roads, &c. which was read and referred.

The bill regulating the pay of brevet officers, and a resolution to subscribe for 1300 copies of the 11th vol. of Waite's state papers, were passed. Some other business was transacted, and the senate adjourned.

Tuesday, March 24th. Mr. Dickinson report-

ed a resolution, directing medals to be struck, and, together with the thanks of congress, to be presented to Maj. Gen. Harrison and Gov. Shelby.

Mr. Barbour, from the committee of foreign relations, to whom had been referred the representations in behalf of Mr. Meade, made a report of considerable length, taking a full view of the subjects, recognizing the wrongs of Mr. Meade, and declaring, substantially, that if the demand of the executive for his release be not complied with, the offence ought to be visited with severe retribution.

The bill adjusting the claims to lands, and establishing land offices, east of the island of New-Orleans was rejected, 12 to 9.

Wednesday, March 25th. Mr. Troup moved a resolution to inquire into the expediency of appropriating the dividends from the shares held by government in the bank of the United States, to the manufacture of arms, &c. for the militia. The bill concerning the bounty to fishing vessels passed.

The amendment to the bill for reducing the staff, changing the commissariat, was read a third time and passed, 25 to 5. The bill was then ordered to be engrossed and read a third

The bill authorising Tennessee to issue grants, &c. after being modified, was ordered to be engrossed for the third reading.

After a message from the President, touching the Seminole war, the senate adjourned.

Thursday, March 26th. Mr. Troup's resolution of yesterday was agreed to.

The joint resolution offered by Mr. Barbour, proposing an amendment of the constitution so as to give congress the power of appropriating money to construct roads, &c. was rejected.

The bill to issue grants, &c. and the bill to reduce the staff, &c. was passed and sent to the

The senate resumed the consideration of the bill to increase the salaries of the heads of departments, which was so modified as to fix the salaries of the secretaries of state and the treasury at \$6500—secretaries of war and navy, \$6000, day of . a third reading.

Mr. Troup's resolution appropriating the bank dividends was agreed to, and after some other

business, the senate adjourned.

Friday, March 27th. The following engressed bills were severally read a third time, passed, and sent to the other house for concurrence, to wit: a bill to increase the salaries of certain officers of the government; and a bill providing for the election of a Delegate from the Michigan territory. The Senate adjourned to Monday.

Monday, March 30th. The bill for amending

the acts for enforcing the neutral relations of the United States was referred to the committee on

foreign relations.

A message was received from the President transmitting a list of the pensioners, &c. accord-

ing to a request of the Senate.

The resolution from the House of Representatives, fixing the day of adjournment of Congress, to the 13th April, was taken up, and amended so as to fix on 20th, and passed.

The bill from the House of Representatives,

authorising the election of a delegate from the Michigan Territory, &c. was rejected.

After some other business the Senate adjourned, the Vice President previously informing the Senate that his private affairs would prevent his

further attendance in the Senate.

Tuesday, March 31st. The Senate elected Mr. Gaillard president of the Senate, pro tem-

Thursday, April 2d. The principal business of the day was upon local matters.

The bill for increasing the salaries of the judges of the United States' courts, was definite-

ly posponed.

Friday, April 3d. The Senate resumed the navigation bill, which was ordered to be engrossed and read a third time.

Mr. Tate, from the naval committee, reported

a bill to repeal part of the act to provide for the survey of the coasts of the United States.

The bill concerning the Alabama Territory

was ordered to a third reading.

Several other bills were disposed of, when Mr. King called on the secretary of the treasury, by a resolution, for a report concerning the funded debt of the United States.

Saturday, April 4th. Mr. Storer, from the committee to which was referred the inquiries in regard to appropriating the bank dividends, reported unfavourably.

The resolution submitted yesterday by Mr. King was amended and agreed to.

The navigation bill passed, 31 to 2. The neutrality bill was recommitted.

The amendment proposed by the House of Representatives to the bill appropriating three-fifths of the net proceeds of sales of public lands in Indiana to the construction of roads and canals in that state, was taken up, and rejected, 22 to and returned to the house. Adjourned to Monday.

Monday, April 6th. After the transaction of some other business, the Senate resumed the consideration of the bill to increase the compensation of the judges of the United States.

On motion of Mr. Fromentin, the salary of the Chief Justice of the U. States, was fixed at 5000 dollars, by yeas and nays-yeas 25, nays 4.

The blanks were then filled so as to make the salaries of the other judges of the supreme court 4500 dollars.

The compensations of the judges of the districts of Massachusetts, of the two districts of New-York, the two districts of Pennsylvania, the district of Maryland, of Virginia, of North Carolina, of South Carolina, of Georgia, of Kentucky, and of Tennessee, was fixed at 2000 a year; and that of the judges of the districts of Maine, of New Hampshire, of Rhode Island, of Connecticut, of Vermont, of New Jersey, of Delaware, of Ohio, of Indiana, of Mississippi, and the territorial judges, at 1500 dollars each, all to commence in July next; in which shape the bill was ordered to be engrossed for a third reading

Mr. Campbell reported a bill further to suspend the forfeiture of lands for failure to complete the payment therefor. And the Senate ad-

Tuesday, April 7th. The engrossed bill to increase the salaries of the United States' Judges

passed, 19 to 14.

The bill concerning the boundary between Mississippi and the Alabama Territory was rejected.

Wednesday, April 8th. The principal business of this day's sitting was the debates upon the bill to prohibit the importation of slaves into the United States, which was postponed to tomorrow; and the adoption of the amendments of the house to the bill regulating the staff of the

Thursday, April 9th. The Senate spent some time upon the bill to prohibit the introduction of slaves into the United States, &c. and ordered it to a third reading as amended. Sundry bills were received from the other house, read and referred.

Friday, April 10th. The bill to prohibit the

importation of slaves was passed.

Saturday, April 11th. The amendments to the neutrality bill were adopted; and the question on the bill to authorise an assistant President and Cashier to the Bank of the United States, was not taken before the Senate adjourn-

Monday April 13th. The committee on naval affairs were discharged from a further consideration of the bill, to authorise the establishment

of naval depots and dock-yards.

The bill for erecting Illinois into a state was

ordered to be read a third time.

Tuesday, April 14th. The bill for admitting Illinois into the Union passed, and was sent to the House of Representatives

The bill for an additional President and Cashier to the Bank of the United States, passed, and was sent to the House.

Wednesday, April 15th. Mr. Horsey submitted a resolution for inquiring into the actual condition and proceedings of the Bank of the United States.

Thursday, April 16th. Mr. Goldsborough's resolution was agreed to, viz .- That the President of the United States be requested to direct the proper officer to lay before the Senate, at an early period of the next session, a list of such officers of the customs, with the salaries, &c. as were unnecessary or inexpedient, that they might be suppressed.

The bill to provide for the erection of additional buildings for the executive departments

passed.

Mr. Lacock moved to strike out of the bill, making appropriations for public buildings, the clause making an appropriation for commencing the centre building of the capitol, but it was negatived, 24 to 6. Mr. Macon then moved to strike out the appropriation of \$20,000 in additional contents. tion to what had already been expended, for furnishing the President's House, which was also negatived, 22 to 11; and the bill as amended was then ordered to a third reading.

Friday, April 17th. The Senate concurred in

the amendments, by the House, of the bill to prohibit the importation of slaves into the Uni-

ted States

The bill from the House increasing the duties on iron in bars and bolts, and in pigs; on cast-ings, nails, and alum, was amended, by inserting 75 cents of the 1 cwt. instead of \$1, and ordered to a third reading.

Saturday, April 18th. Among various bills from the lower House, read and passed in the Senate, were, the bill to continue in force an act relating to settlers on the lands of the United States,—the bill making the port of Bath a port of entry for East India vessels, and making Belfast a port of entry,—the bill to incorporate the Columbian Institute, &c. and the bill to increase the pay of the militia when in actual service.

The amendment of the lower House, to the bill for increasing the salaries of the Judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, among other officers, was rejected. The amendments of the house to the same bill, reducing the salaries proposed for the heads of departments from \$6500 to \$5500, were agreed to with an amendment fixing the pay at \$6000.

Monday, April 20th. On this last day of the

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session of Congress, a number of bills were lost by the operation of the rule which forbids a bill receiving two readings on the same day, unless by unanimous consent; among which were, a bill for the relief of Gen. John Stark; a bill for the rehef of John Anderson; a bill to authorize the payment of certain treasury notes; a bill for the relief of Frederick Brown; a bill to suspend

the sale of certain lands in the state of Louisiana and Mississippi territory, &c. were postponed.

The bill for increasing the salaries of the heads of departments, was lost, by the non-concurrence of the two houses in amendments thereto.

House of Representatives.
Thursday, March 19th. The bill from the Senate extending the time for obtaining military land warrants, passed without amendment. Mr. Taylor submitted a joint resolution, authorising the free transmission by mail, by members of Congress, of the documents communicated by the President on our relations with Spain, which was sent up for concurrence.

The bill in addition to the act for the punishment of certain crimes against the United States, &c. was brought up in committee of the whole, and after considerable débate was ordered to lie on the table that the amendments might be

printed.

Friday, March 20th. Mr. Sergeant, from the committee of ways and means, reported in favour of a drawback on refined sugar exported, and on spirits distilled from foreign materials.

The resolution of the legislature of Maryland on the establishment of a naval depot in that state was referred to a select committee.

The committee on public lands was directed to inquire into the expediency of providing by law for endorsing, on each patent for bounty land, the surveyor's description of the soil, timber, &c.

of the lot conveyed by such patent.

On motion of Mr. Anderson, it was resolved that the committee on so much of the message as relates to roads, &c. be instructed to inquire into the propriety of authorising the secretary of the treasure to subscribe on balance of the H. the treasury to subscribe, on behalf of the U.S. for 500 shares in the stock of the Kentucky and Ohio Caral Company.

A message was received from the President

on our relations with the Netherlands.

After a long discussion on Mr. Herrick's right to a seat, which was determined in his favour, 77 to 70, the House adjourned.
Saturday, March 21st. The bill from the Se-

nate to remit certain alien duties was committed, without amendment to the committee of the whole.

The annual report of the treasury accounts was laid before the House.

Monday, March 23d. Mr. Taylor's resolution for printing and distributing, at the close of each session, an index of the acts and joint resolutions

of such session, was read a turn tune.

The neutrality bill, after some amendments,

by yeas and nays, 95 to 51.

Tuesday, March 24th. The resolution for preparing an index of the laws, &c. was read a third time and passed.

The bill for altering the national flag was or-

dered to a third reading.

In committee of the whole, on the bill for making appropriations for 1818, Mr. Clay moved to insert in the bill a provision for a minister from the U. S. to the Independent Provinces of the River La Plata, in South America, with \$18,000 outfit and one year's salary. Mr. Clay followed his motion with a speech, on the subfollowed his motion with a speech, on the subject of a formal recognition of the independence of the provinces mentioned, which lasted till the House adjourned.

Wednesday, March 25th. The neutrality bill passed and was sent to the Senate, as was the

bill for altering the national flag.

Mr. Clay resumed his speech, in committee of the whole, on the recognition of the Independence of the Spanish patriots, and after three hours, was followed and opposed by Mr. Forsyth, for two hours, when the committee rose, reported progress, and had leave to sit again.

The President sent messages on the Seminole war,-on the subject of the Spanish provinces, and on the subject of the expenditure under the treaty of Ghent; and the House adjourned.

Thursday, March 26th. A message was received from the President concerning Amelia Island, after which the House went into committee of the whole, Mr. Clay's motion to send a minister to Buenos Ayres being under consideration. After an animated debate, the committee rose, with leave to sit again.

Friday, March 27th. Mr. Rich, from the committee of claims, made a report in relation to claims for remuneration of loss, during the war, on the Niagara frontier, which was twice read

and committed.

The bill concerning bounty to fishing vessels in certain cases, was read the third time and passed.

A committee of the whole then sat on the South American question, and at a late hour reported progress, and the House adjourned.

Saturday, March 28th. In committee of the whole, on Mr. Clay's motion for a minister to Buenos Ayres, the vote was 115 to 45 against it so it was lost.

The committee then proceeded to consider the other parts of the appropriation bill; and after some discussion on the subject of the expendi-tures under the treaty of Ghent, the salaries of the agents were reduced from \$4444 to \$3000; after which the committee reported the bill with amendments, rose, and the House adjourned.

Monday, March 30th. Mr. Lowndes from the committee of ways and means, reported the bill, from the Senate, to increase the salaries of certain officers of government, with some amendments, all which were committed to a committee of the whole.

Mr. Holmes, from the committee to inquire into the conduct of clerks of departments, &c.

reported the following resolutions, viz.

1. Resolved—That it is expedient to prohibit the clerks in the several departments, from acting as agents for claimants against the U. S 2. Resolved-That it is expedient to prohibit

the clerks in the several departments from en-

gaging in the business of trade.

3. Resolved-That the several acts relating to the treasury department, should be amended, and certain penalties increased.

4. Resolved-That a committee be appointed to report a bill or bills to carry into effect the above resolutions.

The resolutions were agreed to and commit-

Mr. Tucker, from the committee to which was referred that part of the President's message relating to roads, &c. reported two resolutions-the first requiring the secretary of war to report to the House, at the next session of Congress, a plan for the application of such means as are within the power of Congress, to the purpose of opening roads, &c. with a special reference to the military convenience of the nation, together with a statement of the actual works of a similar nature-and the second requiring a similar report from the secretary of the treasury, with a special reference to the convenience of internal commerce, together with a statement of such works of a similar character as are already completed or begun, and also a statement of the public improvements carried on by states, or by chartered companies, &c.

The Speaker laid before the House the papers concerning our relations with Spain, which were referred to the committee on foreign rela-

The amendments to the appropriation bill were then considered severally, and passed without debate, except that appropriating \$130,000 to pay the damages recovered by Gould Hoyt against Gelston and Schenck, for the seizure of the ship American Eagle, which also passed by a majority of one—the vote being 60 to 59. The amendments having been gone through with, Mr. Forsyth moved to annul the specific appropriation of \$30,000 to pay the mission to South America, and add the sum to the contingent fund: the motion was agreed to without opposition. The bill was ordered to a third reading.

The amendment of the Senate, to the joint resolution for adjournment sent up by the house, altering the day from the 13th April to the 20th,

was agreed to without opposition.

Tuesday, March 31st. Mr. Seybert, from the committee of commerce and manufactures, made unfavourable reports on the several petitions of the manufacturers of looking-glasses in frames, and carvers and gilders on wood; on the petitions of the merchants, traders, and tailors of Boston and Philadelphia, and on the petition of Wheeler and Cock, which reports were read and severally concurred in.

Mr. Johnson of Kentucky, from the committee on military affairs, reported the bill from the Senate to reduce the staff of the army, without amendment, and the bill was laid on the table.

The bill fixing the time (the 2d of November) for the next meeting of Congress, was ordered to be engressed for a third reading.

The engrossed bill making appropriations for the support of government for the year 1818, was read the third time, passed, and sent to the Senate.

The bill making appropriations, the first of \$52,984, to pay claims now due at the Treasury, and the second of 260,000, to meet the demands that will be made under existing contracts, towards completing the Cumberland road, after debate, was ordered to be engrossed for a third reading—aves 67, noes 62.

third reading—ayes 67, noes 62.

Wednesday, April 1st. The engrossed bill for an earlier meeting of Congress than is appointed by the constitution, passed, 87 to 42. The engrossed bill making further appropriations for carrying on the national road, from Cumberland, on the Potomac, to the Ohio, passed, 74 to 56, and both bills were sent up to the Senate for concurrence.

Thursday, April 2d. A petition, presented from Vincente Paros, of Peru, for compensation for property taken possession of by the troops of the United States, at Amelia Island, was referred to the committee of claims.

Mr. Claiborne reported two resolutions requesting the President to cause medals, with suitable devices, to be struck and presented to Maj. Gen. Wm. Carroll, and Brig. Gen. John Coffee, for their gallantry and good conduct on several occasions, and at New-Orleans. Also a similar medal to be given to Gen. Joseph Desha for his good conduct at the river Thames, in

Upper Canada. The resolutions, after much debate, were ordered to lie on the table.

Friday, April 3d. Mr. Scott, from a select

Friday, April 3d. Mr. Scott, from a select committee, reported a bill to authorise the people of Missouri territory to form a constitution and state government, and for the admission of such state into the Union, on an equal footing with the original states; which was twice read and committed.

Saturday, April 4th. Mr. Sergeant reported on Meade's case, and concluded with a resolution that the House support the executive in all proper measures to procure the release of Mr. Meade.

Meade.
Mr. Taylor moved a resolution for inquiry into particular expenditures in the navy, which was adopted

was adopted.

Mr. Slocumb moved a resolution requiring the secretary of war to report a plan, at the next session of Congress, providing the abolition of the Indian trading establishments of the U. S. and for opening the Indian trade to individuals.

Mr. Livermore submitted a resolution to amend the constitution, which was rejected. The resolution was as follows—" No person shall be held to service or labour as a slave, nor shall slavery be tolerated, in any state hereafter to be admitted into the Union, or made one of the United States of America."

The resolutions on internal improvement, reported on the 30th ult. were then put to vote and agreed to, 76 to 57.

Monday, April 6th. After the transaction of much business, of no political interest, the report from the naval committee, who were instructed to inquire into the propriety of changing the discipline of the navy, was taken up and agreed to.

The bill providing for the admission of the territory of Illinois into the union, as an equal and sovereign state, and the bill respecting the organization of the army, were read a third time, passed, and sent to the Senate for concurrence.

On motion of Mr. Forsyth, it was resolved that drawback be limited to merchandise re-

exported in American vessels.

Tuesday, April 7th. The house proceeded to the consideration of the bill to reduce the staff of the army, and to substitute a commissariat instead of the present mode of subsisting the army by contract. The bill, with some amendments, was ordered to a third reading.

The bill making appropriations for the public buildings, &c. and the bill for erecting additional buildings for the executive departments, passed and were sent to the Senate for concurrence.

Wednesday, April 8th. The bill from the Senate to increase the salary of certain judges of the United States was reported to the house and indefinitely postponed.

The bill to regulate the staff of the army, was read a third time, and passed, as amended by this house, and returned to the Senate for concurrence in the amendments.

Mr. Tallmadge submitted a resolution directing the secretary of the navy to lay before the House a report of the actual condition of the navy pension fund, with full details; which was agreed to.

Thursday, April 9th. The bill for increasing the pay of the militia while in actual service; was ordered to a third reading.

The bill on the subject of the Niagara claims was denied a third reading.

Friday, April 10th. The House refused to give the governors of states and territories, the privilege of franking official communications.

In addition to a number of bills for individual claims, were passed, a bill to incorporate the Columbian Institute; and a bill to increase the pay of the militia whilst in actual service.

Saturday, April 11th. The navigation bill

Saturday, April 11th. The navigation bill from the Senate, after a third reading, passed, and was returned to the Senate

and was returned to the Senate.

Monday, April 13th. The House ordered to a third reading the bill from the Senate "regulating the pay and emoluments of brevet rank;" and postponed indefinitely, the bill repealing so much of an act as allows pay and emoluments to brevet rank.

Tuesday, April 14th. The bill to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage; and the bill to increase the duties on iron in bars and bolts, &c. were ordered to a third reading.

Wednesday, April 15th. The consideration of the proposal of Manuel Torres, on the subject of finance, was deferred to the next session of Congress.

The amendments to the bill, from the Senate concerning foreign relations were laid on the table for further consideration.

The bill to authorise the appointment of a vice-president and deputy cashier to the bank of the U.S. was read a second time and referred to the committee on the judiciary.

The bill on the slave trade was ordered to a third reading.

The bill to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage; to provide for the deposit of imported wines or distilled spirits in the public warehouses; to increase the duties on iron in bars, &c. and to disallow the drawback on gun-powder, were severally read a third time,

passed, and sent up for concurrence.

The bill from the Senate, to suspend the sale or forfeiture of lands for failure to complete the payments thereon, was read a third time and

passed.

The House concurred with the Senate in fixing the time for the next meeting of Congress on the

third Monday in November next.

A message was received from the President transmitting the information, in possession of the executive, concerning the confinement of certain American citizens by the Viceroy of Mexico.

The House resolved itself into committee of the whole on the bill to continue in force from and after the 30th June, 1819, to the 30th of June, 1826, the 4th paragraph of the 1st section of the act to regulate the duties on imports and tonnage. The bill was ordered to a third reading, 106 to 34.

Thursday, April 16th. The bill to authorise the recovery of public moneys, was ordered to a third reading.

The Louisiana and Missouri land claims, were referred to the secretary of the treasury, with a request to report a plan for their settlement at the next session of Congress.

Mr. Lewis's resolution for amending the Constitution of the U. S. was twice read and ordered to be printed.

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On motion of Mr. Robertson, of Louisiana,

Resolved, That the President of the United States be requested to obtain from the Spanish authorities, all the records and official documents appertaining to the government of Louisiana, particularly such as concern grants and titles to land, which may have been taken out of that country at the period of its cession to the United States.

And a committee was appointed to wait on the President of the United States with the resolution.

The bill from the Senate to authorise the appointment of a vice-president, &c. to the bank of the U.S. was rejected, 85 to 50.

The bill from the Senate, in addition to the act to prohibit the introduction of slaves into the United States, was read a third time and passed.

The engrossed bill, to continue in force from June, 1819, to June, 1826, the clause of the act of 1816, laying duties on imported cottons, woolens, &c. was read the third time, passed, and sent to the Senate for concurrence

the Senate for concurrence Friday, April 17th. Mr. Pleasants submitted a resolution instructing the secretary of the navy to lay before the house, at an early period of the next session, a full statement on the subject of seamen provided for in various Marine Hospitals, at the expense of the U. S. together with an estimate of the cost of erecting a Naval Hospital at Washington, &c.

Mr. Trimble submitted two resolutions, one instructing the secretary of war to report at an early period of the next session, on the subject of reducing the peace establishment; and the other, instructing the same secretary to report a system for the establishment of a commissariat, which resolutions were, with some amendment, adopted.

Various other business was transacted, and the House adjourned.

Saturday, April 18th. The bill from the Senate, concerning discriminating duties, was read a third time, and passed.

The bill for the relief of Gen. Stark, an aged revolutionary officer, was filled for \$60 per month, passed, and was sent to the Senate.

After a variety of other business, the House adjourned to 10 o'clock on Monday.

Monday, April 20th. The amendments of the

Monday, April 20th. The amendments of the Senate to amendments of the House, to the bill to increase the salaries of certain officers, were not concurred in; and the House determined to insist on its amendment to increase the salaries of the Supreme Court Judges.

The bill from the Senate to divide the state of Pennsylvania into two judicial districts, after considerable opposition, was read a third time and passed.

A message was received from the Senate announcing its relinquishment of some of its amendments to the salary bill, but its adherence to others, but the House would not concur.

A variety of other business was transacted, and then a committee was appointed to wait on the President, jointly with one from the Senate, to inform him that the two Houses having acted on the business before them were ready to adjourn ; and the said committees having respectively reported that the President had no further communications to make, the Heuse adjourned, sine die.

# ART. 11. DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

## MASSACHUSETTS.

Gen. Brooks has been re-elected governor of Massachusetts by a majority of about 10,000 votes.

The trustees of the Massachusetts Hospital, have appointed Dr. Rufus Wyman of Chelmsford, to be physician and superintendent of the Insane Hospital.

Revolutionary Soldiers.—A Boston paper of the 4th ult. says, that, during the past week, about 220 old revolutionary warriors appeared before Judge Davis, to present their claims to pensions, under the late act of Congress. They seemed to be chiefly common soldiers or inferior officers.

There died in Edgarton, in 1817—Two under 1 year; one under 10; one under 20; one under 40; two under 50; one under 60; two above 70; one 83; one 79.

# NEW-YORK.

The bill limiting the number of judges in each county to five, and the number of justices of the peace in each town to four, has passed both houses.

#### PENNSYLVANIA.

At an adjourned court of Common Pleas, held in Gettysburg, for Adams county, early in March, Miss Catharine Everly, plaintiff, and Mr. John Sell, defendant; the plaintiff obtained a verdict for two thousand dollars damages, for breach of marriage promise.

#### GEORGIA.

The latest account from the southern army is a letter from an officer in the suite of Gen. Gaines, dated camp Apalachicola, East Florida, March 13th. The army entered the Spanish province on the 10th, and proceeded to the Apalachicola for want of supplies. They there found a boat load of provisions from the bay. At the time of the sinking of Gen. Gaines' boat, Maj. Wright, and four men were lost.

"The Upper Creeks have joined the army at Fort Scott with two thousand warriors, all anxious to take the field against their turbulent neighbours. They are under command of M'Intosh and Lovett, two of their most distinguished chiefs. The army will consist of from four to five thousand men."

The chief engineer of the U. S. has issued proposals for from 1 to 6 millions of brick, 1 to 2 millions cubic feet of stone, and lime, &c. to be delivered at Mobile, lake Ponchartrain, river Mississippi and lake Barataria—from 50 to 100 carpenters, from 100 to 150 masons, and from 2 to 300 labourers, are also wanted, to proceed to those places, &c.

The bill to admit this territory into the union as a state, has passed. It is estimated to contain 40,000 inhabitants, rapidly in-

creasing, and a surface of 30 millions of land

## ART. 12. REPORT OF DISEASES.

Report of Diseases treated at the Public Dispensary, New-York, during the month of February, 1818. (Omitted last month.)

TEBRIS Intermittens, (Intermittent Fever,)
1; Febris Remittens, (Remittent Fever,)
2; Febris Continua, (Continued Fever, 4)
Febris Infantum Remittens, (Infantile Remittent Fever,) 2; Ophthalmia, (Inflammation of the Eyes,) 4; Cynanche Tonsillaris, (Inflammation of the Fauces,) 3; Cynanche Trachealis, (Hives or Croup,) 1; Catarrhus, (Catarrh,) 5; Bronchitis, (Inflammation of the Bronchiæ,) 6; Pneumonia, (Inflammation of the Chest,) 26; Pneumonia Typhodes, (Typhoid Pneumony,) 3; Pertussis, (Hooping-Cough,) 5; Rheumatismus, (Rheumatism,)
3; Cholera Morbus, 1; Hydrocephalus, (Dropsy of the Head,) 1; Convulsio, (Convulsions,) 1; Rubeola, (Measles,) 2; Variola, (Small-Pox,) 9; Vaccinia, (Kine-Pock,) 101.

Asthenia, (Debility.) 6; Vertigo, 2; Cephalalgia, (Head-Ach.) 3; Dyspepsia, (Indigestion.) 5; Gastrodynia, (Pain in the Stomach.) 2; Obstipatio, 4; Colica, 1; Paralysis, (Palsy.) 1; Catarrhus Chronicus, 2; Bronchitis

Chronica, 7; Asthma et Dyspnœa, 1; Phthisis Pulmonalis, (Pulmonary Consumption,)
1; Vomica, 1; Rheumatismus, 6; Pleurodynia, 1; Lumbago, 2; Menorrhagia, 1; Hæmorrhois, 1; Leucorrhœa, 1; Diarrhœa, 2; Amenorrhœa, 3; Dysuria, (Difficulty in discharging Urine,) 2; Plethora, 1; Anasarca, (Dropsy,) 1; Ascites, (Dropsy of the Abdomen,) 1; Scrophula, (King's Evil,) 1; Tabes Mesenterica, 1; Vermes, (Worms,) 3; Fistula, 1; Syphilis, 6; Urethritis Virulenta, 4; Paraphymosis, 1; Cataracta, (Cataract), 1; Tumor, 1; Pernio, (Chilblains,) 3; Contusio, 8; Stremma, (Sprain,) 2; Fractura, 2; Vulnus, (Wound,) 2; Ulcus, (Ulcer,) 9; Abscessus, 2; Erysipelas, 1; Scabies et Prurigo, 11; Porrigo, 2; Psoriasis, 1; Herpes, 1; Aphthæ, 2.

The weather of this month has been, generally speaking, intensely cold, with the wind mostly between the N. W. and S. W. There have been some falls of snow and hail, with a small quantity of rain. The coldest days were the 9th, 10th and 11th, the mercury in Fahrenbeit's thermometer ranging between 2 and 10°, and the wind blowing very strong from the N. W. In

Albany and other more northern parts of the United States, an extraordinary severity of cold has prevailed; the mercury in the thermometer having fallen between 27 and 34° below zero, while in this city it was at no time so low as zero. The Barometrical range has extended from 30.19 to 30.68. The highest temperature at eight o'clock in the mornings has been 36°, lowest 2°; highest temperature at sunset 44°, lowest 8°.

The general state of health in the city during this interval has been favourable. The same class of diseases has prevailed as in the former month; but partaking rather more of the iuflammatory character, and affecting chiefly the Bronchiæ and pulmonary organs. Some cases of pure Pneumonia have occurred in children; but Croup, and, indeed, Cynanche under any form, has been less than usual. A few cases of continued and remittent fevers have been under treatment. Rubeola and Pertussis have occasionally fallen under notice, the former generally of a mild character. The cases of small-pox have continued to be mostly of an unfavourable description.

In a case of vaccinia, a numerous crop of vesicles of the size of a pea in circumference, accompanied the formation of the pustule, which they surrounded, extending to the distance of between one and two inches.

A case of Peripneumonia in which the lancet was not rsorted to, terminated in hydrothorax.

A case of Asthma was accompanied by anasarca, which was relieved by blood-letting, followed by an emetic, and the use of a few purgatives.

The deaths stated in the New-York Bills of Mortality for the four weeks of this month are as follow:

Abscess, 1; Apoplexy, 4; Asthma, 2; Burned, 1; Casualty, 1; Childbed, 2; Colic, 2; Consumption, 44; Convulsions, 25; Cramp in the Stomach, 3; Dropsy, 15; Dropsy in the Chest, 5; Dropsy in the Head, 9; Drowned, 2; Dysentery, 1; Dyspepsia, 1; Epilepsy, 2; Inflammatory Fever, 1; Typhous Fever, 9; Gravel, 1; Hives, 3; Hooping Cough, 1; Inflammation of the Bowels, 5; Inflammation of the Liver, 1; Insanity, 2; Intemperance, 1; Jaundice, 2; Killed, 1; Measles, 2; Marasmus, 1; Old Age, 11; Palsy, 4; Pneumonia Typhodes, 4; Rheumatism, 2; Scrofula or King's Evil, 2; Small-Pox, 3; Sprue, 3; Spasms, 1; Still-born, 14; Sudden Death, 5; Suicide, 1; Tabas Masantorian, 1; Teathing 2; Un-1; Tabes Mesenterica, 1; Teething 2; Unknown, 1; Worms, 1.—Total 221.

Of which number there died 55 of and under the age of 1 year; 13 between 1 and 2 years; 10 between 2 and 5; 5 between 5 and 10; 9 between 10 and 20; 23 between 20 and 30; 32 between 30 and 40; 19 between 40 and 50; 25 between 50 and 60; 15 between 60 and 70; 9 between 70 and 80; 5 between 80 and 90.

JACOB DYCKMAN, M.D. New-York, Feb. 28th, 1818.

Report of Diseases treated at the Public Dispensary, New-York, during the month of March, 1818.

### ACUTE DISEASES.

Febris Intermittens, (Intermittent Fever,) 2; Febris Remittens, (Remittent Fever,) 2; Febris Continua, (Continued Fever,) 7; Febris Infantum Remittens, (Infantile Remittent Fever,) 3; Phlegmone, 2; Ophthalmia, (Inflammation of the Eyes,) 6; Cynanche Tonsillaris, (Inflammation of the Tonsils and Fauces,) 8; Cynanche Trachealis, (Hives or Croup,) 1; Cynanche Parotidæa, (Mumps,) 1; Catarrhus, (Catarrh,) 10; Bronchitis, (Inflammation of the Bronchia,) 4; Pneumonia, (Inflammation of the Chest,) 24; Pertussis, (Hooping Cough,) 2; Rheumatismus, 3; Icterus, (Jaudice,) 1; Hæmoptysis, (Spitting of Blood,) 1; Erysipelas, (St. Anthony's Fire,) 2; Rhubeola, (Measles,) 4; Varriola, (Small-Pox,) 1; Vaccina, (Kine-Pock,) [85; Dentitio, 2.

# CHRONIC AND LOCAL DISEASES,

Asthenia, (Debility,) 3; Vertigo, 6; Cephalagia, (Head-Ach.) 3; Dyspepsia, 7; Gastrodynia, (Pain in the Stomach.) 3; Obstipatio, 8; Colica, (Colic.) 1; Paralysis, (Palsy.) 1; Ophthalmia Chronica, 1; Catarrh.) 2; Bronchitis Chronica. tarrhus, (Catarrh,) 2; Bronchitis Chronica, 5; Phthisis Pulmonalis, (Pulmonary Consumption,) 3; Rheumatismus, 12; Pleurodynia, 3; Lumbago, 6; Nephralgia, 2; Lithiasis, (Gravel,) 1; Cancer Uteri, 1; Hydarthrus, (White Swelling,) 1; Tumor, 2; Hernia Ingruinalis, 1; Hæmoptysis, (Spitting of Blood,) 1; Menorrhagia, 1; Hæmorrhois, 3; Dysenteria, 1; Amenorr-hæa, 6; Dysmenorrhæa, 1; Ischuria, (Suppression of Urine,) 1; Dysuria, (Difficulty in discharging Urine,) 2; Plethora, 2; Anasarca, (Dropsy.) 2; Ascites, (Dropsy of the Abdomen.) 1; Vermes, (Worms.) 8; Syphilis, 10; Urethritis Virulenta, 4; Contusio, (Bruise,) 5; Stremma, (Sprain,) 2; Luxation, (Dislocation,) 1; Fractura, 3; Vulnus, (Wound,) 3; Ustio, (Burn,) 3; Abscessus, (Abscess,) 2; Ulcus, (Ulcer,) 16; Psoriasis, 1; Herpes, 1; Scabies et Prurigo, 26; Porrigo, (Scald Head,) 3; Eruptiones Variæ, 5.

The month of March commenced with rain, and was more or less stormy and unsettled during the first four days; after which the weather became clear and remarkably pleasant, with the wind chiefly between the N. W. and S. for thirteen days in succession. On the 18th the weather became less agreeable, and cold easterly winds, which were accompanied with some overcast and stormy days, prevailed throughout the remainder of the month. The Barometrical range has been from 30. 21 to 30. 76. The highest temperature of the mornings has been 50° of Fahrenheit, lowest 19° highest temperature of the afternoons, 60°, lowest 22°; highest temperature at sun-set 58°, lowest 23°.

There is little to remark upon the diseases of the period embraced by this report. Our catalogue presents nearly the same series of morbid affections as reported for the preceding month. The mortality, however, has somewhat increased, and the cold easterly winds which prevailed in the latter part of this period have multiplied the number of of Catarrhal complaints, some of which have been attended with a considerable degree of pyrexia, and have required active depletion and a strict adherence to the Antiphlogistic method. Opthalmia and inflammatory sore throats have been rather prevalant, and fevers of the continued kind partaking of the typhoid character have

also increased in frequency.

Variola and Rubeola have diminished. Cases of asthenia, cephalalgia, dyspepsia, gastrodynia, enterodynia and obstipatio, which always constitute a considerable proportion of the chronic diseases among the lower classes of society, have been more common. The great number of eruptive disorders, particularly of the apyretic sort, which occur in Dispensary practice, may, perhaps, excite some surprise; but when we take into consideration the poverty, bad diet, neglect of cleanliness, and consequent distress of the lower orders of people, we have a ready solution of the cause of the frequency of such diseases.

The general Bill of Mortality for March, gives the following account of deaths from

different diseases :

Abscess, 1; Apoplexy, 6; Burned, 1; Casualty, 3; Catarrh, 2; Colic, 1; Consumption, 50; Convulsions, 19; Diarrhæa, 2; Dropsy, 6; Dropsy in the Chest, 5; Dropsy in the Head, 9; Drowned, 2; Dyspepsia, 1; Remittent Fever; 2; Typhous Fever, 11; Gravel, 1; Hæmoptysis, 1; Hæmorrhage, 1; Hives or Croup, 11; Hooping Cough, 4; Inflammation of the Brain, 1; Inflammation of the Chest, 10; Inflammation of the Bowels, 1; Inflammation of the Liver, 1; Insanity, 1; Intemperance, 3; Jaundice, 1; Marasmus, 1; Menorrhagia, 1; Mortification, 1; Nervous Disease, 1; Old Age, 7; Palsy, 4; Pneumonia typhodes, 6; Quinsy, 2; Rheumatism, 1; Scrophula or King's Evil, 2; Small-Pox, 3; Still Born, 15; Stranguary, 1; Sudden Death, 2; Suicide, 4; Tabes Mesenterica, Teething, 2; Unknown, 7; Worms, 1.—Total 244.

Of this number, 62 died of and the age of one year; 18 between 1 and 2 years; 16 between 2 and 5; 7 between 5 and 10; 10 between 10 and 20; 31 between 20 and 30; 30 between 30 and 40; 35 between 40 and 50; 12 between 50 and 60; 9 between 60 and 70; 9 between 70 and 80; 3 between 80 and 90; and 1 of 100

80 and 90; and 1 of 100. JACOB DYCKMAN, M. D.

New- York, March 31st. 1818.

## ART. 13. CABINET OF VARIETIES.

MADAME DESHOULIERES, THE FRENCH POETESS.

THIS lady was much admired as a poetess by her countrymen, yet, except her pastorals, the subjects chosen by her are little interesting; and rather evince strength of mind than harmony of verse, or delicacy of feeling. Indeed they are what might have been expected from a character endued with the self-possession displayed in the following adventure, in which she conducted herself with an intrepidity and coolness which would have done honour to a hero.

Madame Deshoulieres was invited by the count and countess de Larneville to pass some time at their chateau, several leagues from Paris. On her arrival she was freely offered the choice of all the bed-chambers in the mansion, except one, which, from the strange noises that had been for some time nocturnally heard within it, was generally believed to be haunted, and as such had been Madame Deshoulieres was no sooner informed of this circumstance by her friends, than, to their great surprise and terror, she immediately declared her resolution of occupying this dreaded room in preference to any other. The count looked aghast as she disclosed this determination, and in a tremulous voice entreated her to give up so rash an intention, since, however brave

curiosity might at present make her, it was more than probable that in her present situation she would pay for its gratification with The countess observing that all that her husband said failed of intimidating the high spirited Madame Deshoulieres, now added her persuasions to divert her friend from an enterprise from which the bravest man might shrink appalled. "What have we not to fear then," she added, "for a woman on the eve of becoming a mother? Let me conjure you, if not for your own sake, for that of your unborn infant, give up your daring plan." All these arguments repeated over and over again, were insufficient to shake the determined purpose of the adventurer. Her courage rose superior to these representations of the dangers to which she was going to expose herself, because she was convinced that they owed their colouring to superstition acting upon weak minds-she entertained no faith in the "fleshly arm" of a departed spirit, and from an immaterial one her life was safe. Her noble host and hostess pleaded, pitied, blamed, but at length yielded to her wish of taking possession of the haunted chamber. Madame Deshoulieres found it grand and spacious—the windows dark from the thickness of the wallsthe chimney antique and of cavernous depth. As soon as Madame was undressed, she

stepped into bed, ordered a large candle to be placed in a bracket which stood on a stand near it, and enjoining her femme de chambre to shut the door securely, dismissed her. Having provided herself with a book, according to custom, she calmly read her usual time, then sunk to repose—from this she was soon roused by a noise at her door -it opened, and the sound of footsteps succeeded. Madame Deshoulieres immediately decided that this must be the supposed ghost, and therefore addressed it with an assurance that, if it hoped to frighten her from her purpose of detecting the impostor which had created such foolish alarm throughout the castle, it would find itself disappointed in the attempt, for she was resolutely bent on penetrating and exposing it at all hazards. This threat she reiterated to no purpose, for no answer was returned. At length the intruder came in contact with a large screen, which it overturned so near the bed, that getting entangled in the curtains, which played loosely on their rings, they returned a sound so sharp, that any one under the influence of fear would have taken for the shrill scream of an unquiet spirit, but Madame was perfectly undismayed, as she afterwards declared. On the contrary, she continued to interrogate the nocturnal visiter whom she suspected to be one of the domestics, but it still maintained an unbroken silence, though nothing could be less quiet in its movements, for it now ran against the stand on which stood the heavy candle and candlestick, which fell with a thundering noise. In fine, tired of all these exertions, it came and rested itself against the foot of the bed. Madame Deshoulieres was now more decidedly called upon to evince all that firmness of mind and intrepidity of spirit of which she had boasted-and well did she justify the confidence she had placed in her own courage, for still retaining her selfpossession she exclaimed, "Ah, now I shall ascertain what thou art," at the same time she tended both her hands towards the place against which she felt that the intruder was resting. They came in contact with two soft velvety ears, which she firmly grasped, determined to retain them till day should lend its light to discover to whom or to what they belonged. Madame found her patience put to some trial, but not her strength, for nothing could be more unresisting and quiet than the owner of the imprisoned ears. Day at length released her from the awkward, painful position in which she had remained for so many hours, and discovered her prisoner to be Gros-Blanc, a large dog belonging to the chateau, and as worthy, if faith and honesty deserve the title, as any of its inhabitants. Far from resenting the bondage in which Madame Deshoulieres had so long kept him, he licked the hands which he believed had been kindly keeping his ears warm all night; while Madame Deshoulieres enjoyed a hearty faugh at this ludicrous end to an adventure,

for the encounter of which she had braced her every nerve.

In the meantime the count and countess, wholly given up to their fears, had found it impossible to close their eyes during the night. The trial to which their friend had exposed herself, grew more terrible to their imagination the more they dwelt upon it, till they at length persuaded themselves that death would be the inevitable consequence. With these forebodings they proceeded as soon as it was light to the apartment of Madame Deshoulieres-scarcely had they courage to enter it, or to speak when they had done so. From this state of petrifaction they were revived by their friend andrawing her curtains, and paying them the compliments of the morning with a triumphant look. She then related all that had passed with an impressive solemnity, and having roused intense curiosity to know the catastrophe, she smilingly pointed to Gros-Blanc, as she said to the count, "There is the nocturnal visiter whom you have so long taken for the ghost of your mother;" for such he had concluded it from having been the last person who had died in the chateau. The count regarded his wife-then the dog-and blushed deeply, not knowing whether it were better to laugh or be angry. But Madame, who possessed a commanding manner, which at the same time awed and convinced, ended this state of irresolution by saying, " No, no, Monsieur, you shall no longer continue in an illusion which long indulgence has endeared to you. I will complete my task and emancipate your mind from the shackles of superstition, by proving to you that all which has so long disturbed the peace of your family has arisen from natural causes. Madame arose, made her friends examine the lock of the door, the wood of which was so decayed as to render the locking it useless, against a very moderate degree of strength. This facility of entrance had been evidently the cause of Gros-Blanc, who liked not sleeping out of doors, making choice of this room. The rest is easily accounted for, Gros-Blanc smelt, and wished to possess himself of the candle, in attempting which he committed all the blunders and caused all the noises which has annoved me this night, and he would have taken possession of my bed also if he had not given me an opportunity of seizing his ears. Thus are the most simple events magnified into omens of fearful and supernatural augury.

# John V. King of Portugal, and his Mistress.

This prince was so much captivated by a young and handsome lady of the court, that, although well informed of her having already bestowed her heart on a lover every way deserving of it, he was determined to endeavour at winning the preference through all those temptations which kings have it in their power to offer. The young lady's sen-

timents and principles were, however, proof against these undue attempts to shake her fidelity to the first possessor of her affec-tions; and to prove her resolution to maintain it unbroken, she retired to the convent D'Oliveira, hoping that she should there be safe from the importurities of her royal admirer. In this she was sadly mistaken: she fled not with more earnestness than the king pursued; and as no retreat, however sacred, could be barred against him, whose power was despotic, she was still obliged to submit to his visits, and trust to time and her own perseverance in virtue for that release which she had vainly sought in a religious retirement. Determined, at all events, to avoid ever being alone with the king, she engaged, as her constant companion, a young lady belonging to the convent, who might at the same time be a restraint on the king's conduct, and a strict witness of her own. This circumspection, from which nothing could for a moment divert her, failed of proving to the royal lover that her heart was closed against him. John, therefore, persevered in his suit; but suspecting that the little progress he had hitherto made, was attributable to the opportunities his rival still enjoyed of keeping alive his interest in the affections of his mistress, he determined on removing this fancied obstacle to his success, by sending the young man out of the kingdom; and this he did in a manner most calculated to extenuate in some degree the motives which actuated him. He generously conferred on him an honourable and lucrative employment, at a distance from Portugal, and made every branch of his family easy in their circumstances through his munificence. A more summary and a more cruel method of getting rid of a rival, might have been expected from a despotic monarch of a country noted for the most atrocious acts of jealous passion.

All his Majesty's schemes were vain; the object of them maintained the same cold, respectful reserve, which virtue had first dictated as the most dignified mode of checking the unlawful hopes of the king; who now, as a lover's last resource, endeavoured to enlist vanity in his cause—that auxiliary which has so often proved all-powerful where love and ambition have failed. To rouse this passion in his behalf, the king affected to transfer his admiration and attentions to the companion of his mistress; but here again he was fated to meet disappointment—a pure and constant attachment guarded Mademoiselle de from that mean species of jealousy which it was intended should effect her downfall. John, however, continued to act the part he had assumed till, unconsciously to himself, he became charmed by the sense, wit, and interesting manners of the person through whom he had hoped to have wounded the vanity of the first object of his admiration. But his majesty was at length convinced that the latter was rejoiced at being relieved from his importunities, and

that she anxiously waited for the moment when she might feel herself wholly emancipated from the painful restraint under which she had for some time suffered. This soon took place: the king's new attachment so rapidly gained strength, that it shortly conquered all remains of his former inclination; and his second mistress, less scrupulous or more interested by the passion of the king, yielded without reserve to the pleasures of a mutual affection. The intercourse to which this led, continued unbroken for many years, and was finally dissolved in a manner honourable to both parties.

This event originated in the following cir-

cumstances :-

Lisbon was just recovering from the fatal effects of a disorder resembling the plague, which had carried off a great portion of its inhabitants, when it was again visited by a calamity which severely renewed the affliction and miseries of the survivors. There arose, from the south, so tremendous a storm, that it threatened to involve this ill-fated city and its neighbourhood in irremediable ruin. Seven hundred vessels, which were riding at anchor in the Tagus, were torn from their moorings, and either entirely wrecked or greatly injured by running aground. One English man of war, commanded by Lord Were, and destined for the secret conveyance of money privately granted by the court of Portugal to that of London, alone weathered unhurt this frightful tempest. The ships of war belonging to his Portuguese majesty shared in the destructive consequences already mentioned. The country in the vicinity of the metropolis exhibited a similar scene of devastationhouses on all sides reduced to a heap of rubbish-the earth strewed with the dismembered branches of the finest trees, and millions of the largest olives torn up by the roots, presented a sad spectacle of a loss which there could be no hope of repairing for many years. When these melancholy and desolating effects of the storm were described to the king, he was so deeply penetrated with grief at the sufferings of his people, that, wholly unable to control his feelings, his tears flowed unchecked in the presence of father Govea. This worthy man was of the order of Capuchins, and an admirable preacher. The holiness of his life, which was exemplary, had impressed the king with the highest veneration for his person, and the most perfect confidence in his disinterestedness, a strong proof of which he had given in having refused both the dig-nity of patriarch of Lisbon, and cardinal of Rome, which had been pressed upon him. The state of mind in which father Govea now saw the king of Portugal, was too favourable to the accomplishment of a wish he had long cherished at heart, to be suffered to subside without an effort at obtaining it. He had in real charity grieved over the state of adultery in which the king lived, and therefore seized the present auspicious

moment to represent to him, with mild eloquence, that God, when justly irritated by the guilty conduct of princes, frequently suffered the punishment they had incurred, to fall in this world on their less faulty subjects, reserving, it might be fearfully apprehended, a severer one for the greater culprits in the world to come. This edifying reproof of the good father, which was ex-tended beyond what it is here necessary to detail, made a sensible impression on the king, and particularly on the point which had principally instigated him to venture this exhortation. Of this, his majesty gave a solid proof, by instantly resolving to sa-crifice to God the object that had so long diverted him from his duties. It required no small degree of manly fortitude to fulfil this laudable determination. His attachment to his mistress continued unabated, and her society was an unfailing source of pleasure and comfort to him after the cares and employments of the day. This he evinced by regularly repairing, at the fall of every evening, to the convent D'Oliveira, where she continued to reside, to pass it in her company. He was now to give up for ever an intercourse, from which he had for years derived his chief delight-an object that was still dear to him-and his majesty was nobly firm in prosecuting this painful reformation, for he did not even allow himself a last interview with his mistress. This lady acted with no less dignity and fortitude. Finding that the king did not visit her the day after the hurricane, she sent a messenger to inquire into the cause, who was at the same time commissioned to present the king with a couple of shirts, which she had made for him with her own hands. advice of father Govea, however, this present was not delivered. On the return of the messenger, the lady was fully informed of all that had passed, and the resolution which had in consequence been formed by his majesty respecting his future conduct in regard to her. So far from resenting this desertion, she appeared desirous of following his example, and obliterating, by a life of benance, the guilt she had incurred by their illicit commerce. She readily quitted the magnificent apartments which the king had with boundless generosity built and adorned purposely for her use;—returned all his costly presents—and, with an humble spirit, retired again to the lowly cell which she had occupied in the days of her innocence. The king consoled himself for her loss, by elevating and enriching those of her family whom he knew to be most dear to her. Thus ended this amour.

AN EXTRAORDINARY INSTANCE OF FEMALE INTREPIDITY.

From L'Ermite en Province.

I made the journey from Agen to Montauban (says M. Jouy, whose recent essays under the above title have become rather too diffuse for our publication, too political in

their tendency, and not devoted with the same happiness as heretofore to the picture of manners) in company with a handsome young lady, whom I will call Madame D'Ettivale, in order to come near to her name, without naming her: she is a French woman in the whole force, in the whole extent, in the whole grace of the term: the words charme and entrainement would have been invented for her. I do not think that there exists a heart which beats higher at the ideas of glory, of misfortune, of country; and I venture to affirm, that if there are in France a hundred thousand men like that woman, we may be without uneasiness respecting the future. I do not know what this lady thinks of love, nor how she speaks of it, (it is a question upon which people do not understand each other at the two extremities of life); but I do not hesitate to adduce her as a living refutation of the reproach which Montaigne, La Rochefoucault, and Beaumarchaise have cast upon women, that they do not know real friendship between themselves. Madame D'Ettivale has a female friend of her own age, several of whose letters she has shown me. If they should be one day published, I would not answer for their dispossessing Madame de Sevigné of the epistolary sceptre, which she holds by prescriptive admiration; but I am certain that people will find in them sentiments which are just and natural, even in their exaltation; and the expression of an ardent soul, which discharges itself into the bosom of a friend without thinking of the opinions of the great world, for which such letters are not written. The history of these two ladies, which is connected with the principal events of the revolution, would furnish an excellent chapter of manners; but independently of the secrecy which we owe to confidential communications, this narrative would throw me back into the whirlpool of the capital, which I have quitted for a time. I will confine myself to relating the travelling adventure which gave birth to a friendship of which few instances would be found among the men of any age or country

Madame Eleonore de Monbrey (this is the name of Madame D'Ettivale's friend) had a mere general acquaintance with her when they made a journey together, some years ago, to Bagneres, where they were going to take the waters. Madame D'Ettivale had with her, her daughter, eight years old, whose beauty begins to be talked of in the world. A singular conformity of taste, of opinions, (which at that time were only sentiments) and which the intimacy of a few days developed, had already laid the foundation for an union between these two young ladies, which was soon to be cement-

ed by a horrible event.

A few leagues on the way from Bagneres to Luchon, on seeing a steep road, which made it necessary to put a drag on the wheels of their carriage, Madame de Monbrey proposed to her companion to descend the mountain on foot. The latter fearing the

fatigue more than the danger of the road, entrusted her daughter to the care of a maid servant, and remained alone in the carriage. The road passed, for about a hundred toises, between two precipices, the depth of which was concealed by the hedges and brushwood which covered the edge. The little girl holding the servant by the hand, was walking in a path worn on the side of the road. Madame de Monbrey, who had taken the other side of the road, was a few steps before them: suddenly a piercing shriek is heard-she turns, and sees the servant stretched upon the ground, writhing in convulsions of despair. She runs up—the child is still rolling down a precipice above a hundred feet deep: without hesitating an instant-without reflecting on the dreadful danger which she braves-a young, weak, and delicate woman descends, or rather rushes down, this abyss; directing herself in her descent by the cries of the unfortunate little girl, who is hanging to the branches of an old willow, suspended over the pointed rocks which line the bottom of the abyss. The heroic Eleonore, to whom nature, at this moment, gives a degree of strength which she will perhaps never feel again, disengages the child, seizes with her teeth the collar of her frock, makes her ascend before her, and holding by the briars and thorns, which tear in vain her face and hands, she succeeds, after an hour's supernatural efforts, in restoring the child to her mother, whom the postillion, who held her in his arms, had alone prevented from throwing herself down the precipice. I shall say nothing of the painful and transporting scene which followed the unhoped-for re-union. I was not witness to it; and there are, besides, situations in life, which it is sufficient to indicate in order to describe them.

# From the Missouri Emigrant. EXTRAORDINARY PERSEVERANCE.

Dr. Samuel Peters is now waiting at Praise du Chien, the upper military post and settlement on the Mississippi, for the permission of the proper authorities to hold councils with Indians. His object is to gain their consent for him to settle the track of land at lake Pepin, given by them to the celebrated Capt. Jonathan Carver. Dr. P. is upwards of 81 years of age, he formerly lived at Hebron, Con. and is one of those who retired to England during the American revolutionary struggle, and for his loyalty received several appointments from the king. He was bishop of Connecticut and chaplain to one of the British commissioners at the first treaty of peace with America.

In London he met Capt. Carver, (with whom he was formerly acquainted,) after he had been disappointed in having his grant confirmed, and so frequently deceived by the ministry, that he had spent all his property and means of support in fruitless attendance upon them, and had at last given up his claim in despair. Dr. P. took him

home, and supported him through a long and expensive series of troubles, until by the influence of his friends, he brought the petition before the king in council, who was pleased to grant it. Capt. C. was soon after taken sick and died, but before his death, he assigned to Dr. P. all his rights to the land as a remuneration for his expense and trouble, only requesting the Doctor to remember his children, and do for them as if they were his own. For this purpose, Dr. P. returned to America in 1807, and collected together the heirs of Capt. C. and offered to give them back his right to the land or do any thing else that they might suggest as meeting their wishes, and enable him to fulfil the injunctions of his friend; they concluded that it would be best for him to complete the title, as he was better qualified, &c. and they would be satisfied with a township of the lands after ards.

Dr. Peters returned to England, and before he was ready to return, war commenced, which kept him in England until the peace. Since this period he has been ardently employed to commence a settlement, and notwithstanding his age and infirmities, the extreme danger and almost insurmountable difficulties of the undertaking, he has undauntedly progressed as far as above stated, and so sanguine is he of ultimate success, that in a letter to the writer of this, for information, &c. he says, "I expect to beild next summer, a saw and grist mills, dwelling house, &c. at Mount Lesoille, \*township of ——, county of Munroe and territory of Petrysylvania, near lake Pepin." S.

Corrigenda in the review of Wirt's Life of Henry, in our last.

Page 413. For items of the hero or statesman—read, items in the hero's or stateman's reputation, &c.

Page 414. For, we acknowledge the ample assistance, &c.—read, he acknowledges, &c.
Same page. For, the intenseness of his re-

Same page. For, the intenseness of his reputation,—read extension, &c.

Same page. For, he would throw himself in

all forms,—read into all forms.

Page 416. For, with boots—read with hunting boots, &c.
Page 417. For, to hide an enormous defect in

the treasury,—read an enormous deficit.

Page 419. For, even remain a matter of opi-

rage 419. For, even remain a matter of opinion,—read, ever remain.

Page 423. For, this common error,—read, the common error.

Same page. For, perfect and entire here means—read, here mean.

Page 424. For, a much longer life than ever that, &c.—read, than even that. For, proper in the long since of the bar,—read, proper in the language of the bar.

Page 425. For, was almost death,—read, was almost instant death.

Pages 425 and 427. Exuviæ is incorrectly spelt with the diphthong  $\alpha$ .

Page 426. For, few such can be found,—read, few such instances can be found.

\* Lesouille is the name of the principal chief of the Sioux, and I suppose the greatest counseller of their nation.